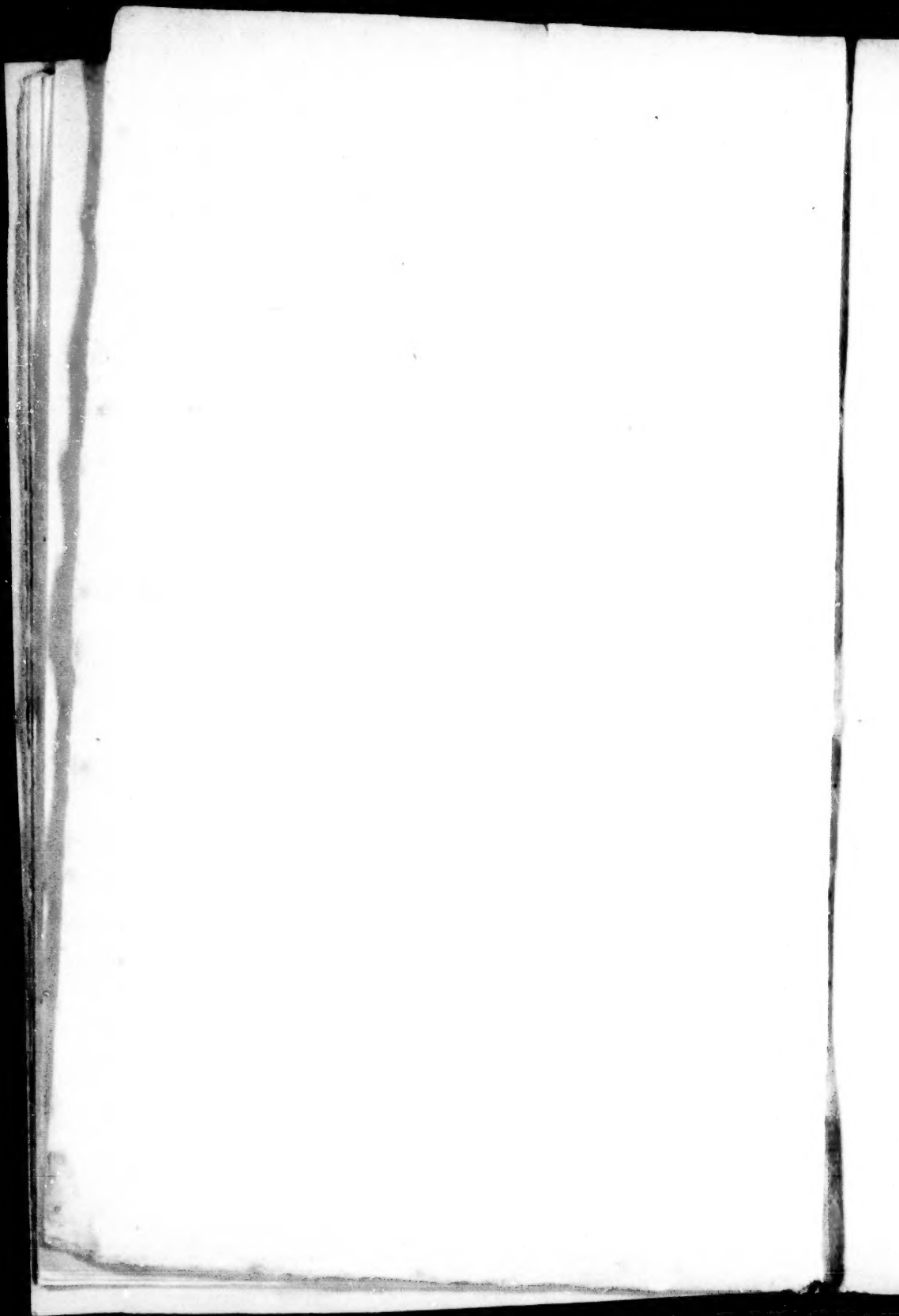
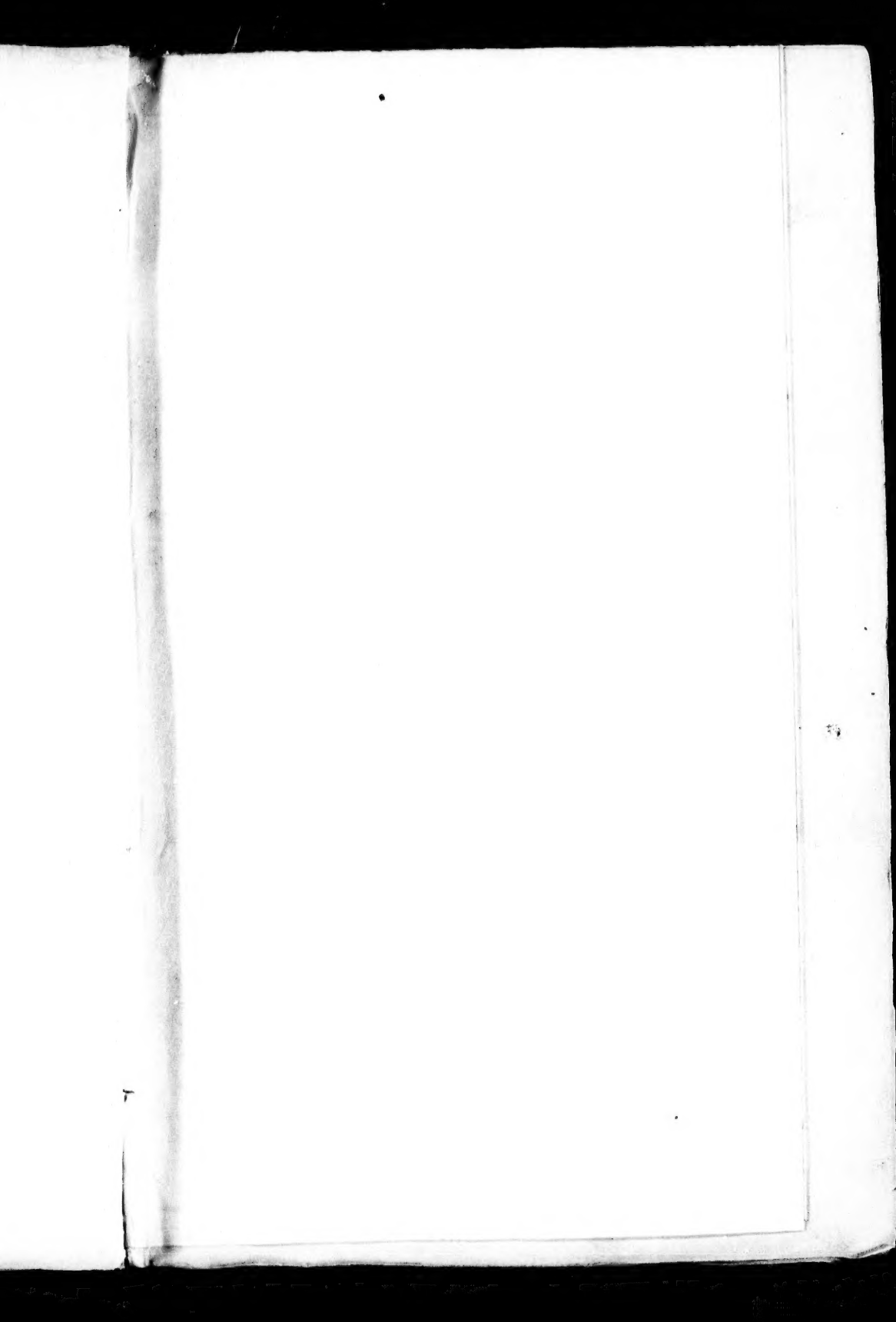




BRITISH AMERICA.

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BRITISH AMERICA.

BY

JOHN M'GREGOR, Esq.

IN TWO VOLUMES.

VOL. I.

SECOND EDITION.

**WILLIAM BLACKWOOD, EDINBURGH; AND
T. CADELL, STRAND, LONDON.**

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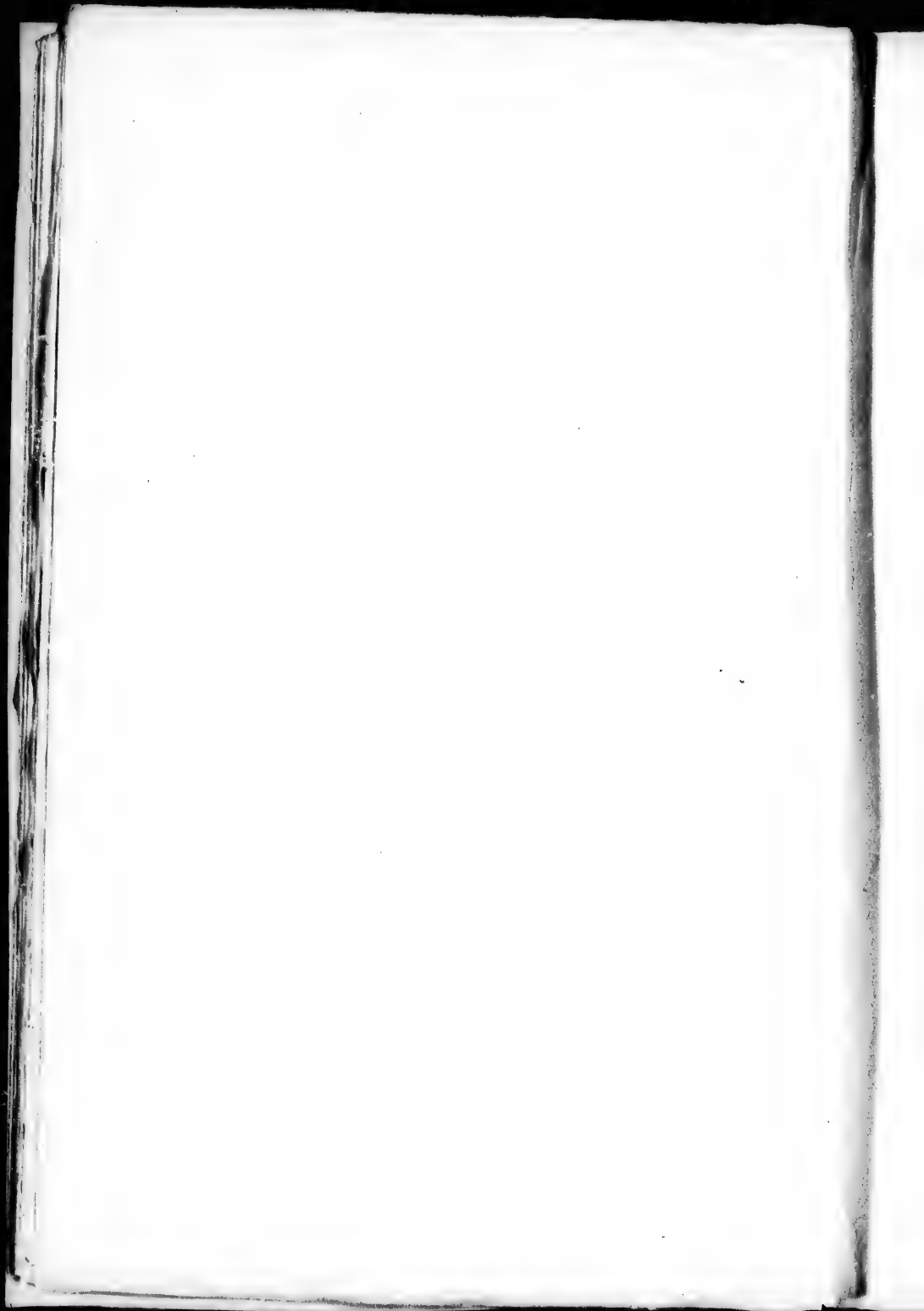
THE JOURNAL OF

TO
HIS MOST GRACIOUS MAJESTY,
WILLIAM THE FOURTH.

SIRE,
YOUR MAJESTY having been the only British Monarch who ever visited that interesting portion of the Empire which I have attempted to describe, I was emboldened to solicit Your Majesty's Patronage for my Work. For the gracious manner in which permission was granted me to dedicate my humble labours to Your Majesty, I beg to offer my very grateful and respectful thanks.

I have the honour to be,
SIRE,
Your Majesty's
Very dutiful, and very loyal Subject,
JOHN M'GREGOR.

LONDON,
20th June, 1833.



PREFACE.

THE materials of the following Sketches were principally collected during my travels, and while residing for several years in America. My pursuits afforded me the most favourable opportunities of becoming acquainted with the regions least known in these kingdoms; and I have zealously endeavoured to describe whatever came under my own observation, and to form conclusions according to the information communicated to me by others, without any bias.

Every thing convinced me that the British Empire in North America was imperfectly known; and, consequently, that the just value of that vast territory was not understood. I was also convinced that nearly all the errors committed in treating with foreign powers concerning His Majesty's colonies, as well as all the blunders which have occurred in our colonial policy, have been the results of the *meagre* information possessed by our government, and not, according to a prevalent opinion, the effect of intentional neglect on the part of His Majesty's ministers.

In order to give a general, historical, and descriptive view of British America, I have briefly noticed the early settlement, advancement, and the causes that led to the independence of the old colonies ; and also the constitution, policy, military and naval force, and the public institutions of the United States. I have, at the same time, endeavoured to exhibit impartially the general characteristics of society in that extraordinary Republic ; in which, although there may be much to condemn, there is assuredly much more to admire : particularly among those who, from their education, superior abilities, and wealth, naturally give a tone to public manners, and, at the same time, openly or silently govern the people.

To avoid tedious recapitulation, I have in the Second Book endeavoured to describe, with all possible accuracy, the natural history of British America ; and in appropriating a Book to an account of each colony, I have, with a short history of its settlement and progress, devoted respective portions to the topography, natural resources, constitution, laws, agriculture, trade, and inhabitants. The last Book contains remarks on emigration, and miscellaneous subjects, which are generally considered of importance by the Colonists, and to those who are about leaving the United Kingdom for America.

The descriptive parts of the work are principally

from personal observation ; or, when I was prevented from visiting any of the places that I have described, I have had recourse to the best resident authorities, whose statements and accounts I have carefully examined and compared, before introducing their substance into this work. I have also had the records of all the British American legislatures placed in my hands.

The statistical accounts are calculated according to official returns, and statements drawn up specially for me by resident gentlemen of well-known probity in Upper and Lower Canada, and in each of the Maritime Colonies.*

The materials of the historical sketches I have taken from various old records, particularly those of Massachusetts Bay, relative to the early settlement of our colonies ; from Hakluyt ; the *Lex Mercatoria* ; Anderson on Commerce ; Lascarbot, Charlevoix ; Raynal ; La Hontan ; Pepperal's Journal ; Journal of the Jesuits ; and various manuscript records and letters, which I collected in America.

To many gentlemen of high standing in the colonies, I have gratefully to acknowledge the obligations I owe them, not only for personal civilities, but for the excellent information which they have

* The statistical accounts, and the historical and descriptive parts of this edition, are carried down to January and February 1833.

afforded me. For a great portion of the facts I required, in drawing up statements relative to the trade of the colonies, I am indebted to the Chamber of Commerce of Halifax, the best repository of commercial information in America; and the benefits of which were extended to me by the courtesy of the gentlemen who form its members having resolved, at a general meeting, when I was last at Halifax, "that the books in which their transactions were registered should be sent me, with liberty to make such extracts as I thought proper." Nor must I omit to acknowledge the facility extended to me by the principal officers of His Majesty's Customs.

In whatever I have read on emigration, there appeared to me either a prejudice or an interested bias for or against the question. The information collected for the Emigration Committee, and the observations founded on that information, by the Right Honourable Wilmot Horton, as far as regards emigration on a grand scale, afford, it is true, correct details; but they are not within the reach of general readers, nor to be obtained by persons in humble life, who emigrate at their own expense. The valuable work of the late Lord Selkirk would form another exception to the above observation, if it detailed as fully the difficulties that attended, as it does the causes, that, in Scotland, led to emigration. It is no *common-*

day business, but a most serious consideration, for a man with his family to remove from the place in which he was born and brought up, and from occupations to which he has been trained and habituated from his childhood, to a country far distant, and, in many respects, different from his own, and in which he must assume pursuits, and acquire ideas, to which he is a perfect stranger. I have therefore endeavoured to point out, occasionally in the descriptive pages, and concisely in the last book of this work, the advantages and the difficulties which may be expected to attend emigrating from the United Kingdom and settling in America.

The establishing of steam-vessels between the United Kingdom and British America, touching at the points marked in the general chart, would not only connect both countries much more intimately than at present, but the resources of each would be greatly augmented in value, and the importance of the British colonies would also be much better appreciated. I may observe, that the province of Nova Scotia alone, if possessed by the United States, would render that Republic independent of all Europe; and, in the event of another war, when steam-ships will become terrible to all others, the Americans would be enabled, by possessing the exhaustless coal and iron mines of Nova Scotia and Cape Breton, to

defy the united naval force of all Europe on the shores of the western world.

At present the Americans have no coal within themselves that we know of*, except the remarkably *slow kindling anthracite*, which is useless for the immediate fire required in the furnaces of steam-engines, while Great Britain now possesses the most valuable treasures of the most useful of all minerals, coal and iron, in the parts most convenient for immediate use, both in her home and colonial dominions.

The British North American colonies are, comparatively speaking, still in their infancy. To be convinced of this, we have only to compare what the old colonies now forming the United States were when they declared their independence, with their present condition, and then draw a parallel between their condition at that time, and the present state of the British North American colonies.

In 1772, the European population of the old colonies was little more than 2,000,000. At present, the population of the United States is about 13,500,000. In 1783, all the European inhabitants of the present British North American possessions only amounted to 193,000. They now (1833) contain a population of

* It is said that good furnace coal has lately been discovered in Main; but I have no evidence of the circumstance, although it is by no means improbable.

about 1,800,000. When we therefore consider that these colonies, by cultivation and improvement, are capable of supporting at least 30,000,000 of inhabitants ; and including the countries west of the great lakes, probably more than 50,000,000, and that the soil of those countries will produce all the crops that ripen in England, with Indian corn, and other productions, in a climate equally salubrious as that of Britain, we will have little difficulty in concluding, that the men who plant themselves in those regions must rapidly increase their numbers ; and becoming, from interest and inclination, attached to the land of their adoption, they and their offspring will for ever maintain possession of vast and valuable territory, which, from well known causes, will give the power that holds dominion over it the umpirage of the Western World.

It has been urged, as an argument in support of the inutility of our colonies, that the United States of America have taken more British manufactured goods since, than before their independence. Never was there a more false inference made by men who commit blunders from not examining facts. The increased consumption of British goods in the American republic, is the natural consequence of a rapidly increased population ; for that the people of the United States have not augmented the demand for British fabrics, in the same ratio as their numbers

have multiplied, is satisfactorily proved by various unexceptionable authorities.

This arises in consequence of the political bond between the United Kingdom and the United States being severed, having turned the attention of Congress to home manufactures; and, in order to foster them, to impose heavy restrictions by an obnoxious tariff on the importation of goods, as a measure which the American legislature consider politically wise. Vast quantities of French, and other continental manufactures, as well as Asiatic fabrics, have also been annually consumed in the United States since they became independent; while the present British North America and West Indian colonies receive nearly all their manufactured supplies from the United Kingdom.

There are, we know, men who clamour against the retention of her colonies by England. But let us only consider, that if Great Britain lose her present possessions in North America, they must either merge into the government of the United States, or if they be left independently to themselves, interest and safety would induce them to form a league, offensive and defensive, with at least the Northern States; and should such a separation, and such a compact ever be formed, who can say that the splendid magnificence of England will not be tarnished

—that her naval glory will not decline—and that her political consequence among the nations of the earth will not diminish, along with the loss of the colonies of the West?

Admitting, on the ground of argument, that the colonies are to be abandoned by Great Britain, will they be conquered by the Americans? Certainly not. During the last war, the progress the latter made towards conquering Canada, was little more than trifling desultory attacks, although the defence of the country depended chiefly on the bravery of the Canadian militia. The British colonies can now raise an effective militia of at least 180,000 men, equally brave and well-disciplined as any troops the Americans can bring against them; and if ever the American Republic and the British North American colonies unite under one government, it must be by mutual consent, and from considerations of mutual benefit and protection.

The retention of our colonies is, however, an object of such vital importance to the power and prosperity—to the trade, manufactures, and safety of the United Kingdom—that the very idea of abandoning them cannot be for one moment defended, either on just or political grounds. Wanting colonies, and consequently a commercial navy, the manufactures and military navy of France began to languish from

the day that the battle which Wolfe fought on the plains of Abraham, destroyed the power of France in America. Had England wanted her colonies during the last war, her importance in the scale of nations would, in all probability, be very different from the magnificent and powerful state which she has maintained amidst all the eventful changes of that period.

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ERRATA IN VOL. I.

Page 26. last line, dele "less."

163. line 3. for "159" read "329."

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BRITISH AMERICA.

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HISTORICAL SKETCH, INTRODUCTORY TO THE WHOLE.

CHAPTER I.

DISCOVERY AND SETTLEMENT OF NORTH AMERICA.

THE history of the world does not afford an epoch so gloriously important as the discovery of America by Columbus in 1492.

It created, as is well known, an era that gave a new and adventurous direction to the ambition of European nations; and, while the consequent passion of enterprise sent bold and resolute spirits to the vast regions of the New World, fresh discoveries enriched the sciences; and from that period geography, astronomy, and navigation became more satisfactorily known.

This magnificent hemisphere, possessing all the climates under heaven, fertile soils, precious minerals, forests of the most valuable timber; and inhabited

by a bold and fierce race, unknown to and differing in colour from the people of the previously ascertained world; and abounding in multitudes of known and unknown varieties of wild animals, was to be explored, the natives exterminated or subdued, and the discovered countries to be added to the dominions of European nations that sent forth men to discover and conquer them.

Of all the various principles on which right of soil has been founded, there is none superior to immemorial occupancy. The right of the Indians to the country they inhabited was founded in nature. Their tenure was the free and bounteous gift of Heaven, which no man had a right to question, or any nation a legal or equitable pretence to destroy.

The dark superstition of the times regarded the Deity as the partial God of Christians. The Spaniards made this doctrine, under the sanction of the pope, their measure of right, in wresting the rich countries of South America, and the Island of Cuba, from the natives. Even our Queen Elizabeth and King James, although they denied the authority of the pope, yet, from the principle of avarice, and the passion of ambition, they adopted the fanciful distinction of Christian and heathen right, so far as to make it the measure of justice by which they claimed the countries discovered by their subjects.

Europeans subdued, with little difficulty, tribes, however numerous, who were ignorant of the use of firearms, or scientific warfare, and who regarded their invaders as supernatural spirits sent down by the gods of thunder.

Before they discovered the fatal delusion, the critical period for defending their country had passed

away; nor did they ascertain that white men were vulnerable, until they became their conquerors.

The cruelty and treachery of the Spaniards, until they completely subjugated the natives, and became masters of their fine and rich country, admit of no parallel in the annals of civilised nations, and afford a powerful argument to redeem the savage state of man from being considered more cruel, base, and unprincipled, than that of refined society.

The Spaniards having, by priority of discovery, by force, injustice, cruelty, and treachery, possessed themselves of the richest territories, the English, and other European nations, had either to make farther discoveries, or be content with their dominions in the Old World. The ambition and pride of England did not, however, allow her to remain inactive, while the Portuguese persevered in the advantages to be obtained by finding a new way on the ocean to the East Indies, and while the glorious discovery of half a world by Spain was succeeded by the conquest of its richest and most extensive empires.

Henry VII., accordingly, in 1496, granted to John Cabot, or Gabotta, a Venetian, a commission to navigate all parts of the ocean, for the purpose of discovering islands, countries, and provinces, either of *Gentiles* or *infidels*, which had been hitherto unknown to all Christian people, with power to set up his standard, and take possession of the same, as vassals of the crown of England.

Thus began the history of English discoveries; and Cabot, this year, with two ships, reached the coast of Labrador. He made a voyage the following year, and, on the 24th of June, discovered Bonavista, in Newfoundland. He then, with his son Sebastian,

traversed the coast of America from Davis' Straits to Cape Florida.*

In 1502 Sebastian Cabot, under English auspices, arrived at Newfoundland, and was the first European who entered the Gulf of St. Lawrence. He explored part of its coasts, and carried from St. John's Island (now Prince Edward), which he discovered, three natives to England.

It was twenty-one years after Sebastian Cabot discovered the Gulf of St. Lawrence, that Francis I. of France despatched Verazani, who coasted the shores of America from 28° to 50° north latitude. This adventurous navigator was shipwrecked, and perished, on his third voyage.

Jacques Cartier, of St. Maloes, in 1534, sailed from France on a voyage of discovery, and entered the Gulf of St. Lawrence on the festival of that saint, to which it owes its name.

The following year, he sailed up the great *Hosh-laga*, which he called the St. Lawrence, and wintered in Canada, which he named New France.

The first attempt at settlement made by the English was in 1579, when Sir Humphrey Gilbert obtained a patent from Queen Elizabeth to plant Newfoundland, in which he was unsuccessful, and returned home after losing one of his ships. France discovered Carolina in 1562, which the discoverer, Renie Laudénier, so called, in honour of Charles IX.

Florida had been discovered in 1513; and the whole of that part of America, and the coast to an indefinite distance northward, was known by that name until 1584, when Sir Walter Raleigh and

* There appears some uncertainty as to whether Sebastian alone, or accompanied by his father, made the two latter voyages.

Adrian Gilbert obtained a patent from Queen Elizabeth, by virtue of which they took possession of Virginia.* This was long the name by which the English designated all North America.

During the following year, Sir Walter Raleigh stationed one hundred people at Roanoke, in Virginia, who endured the most incredible hardships. Many of them perished, and the remainder were carried back to England by Sir Francis Drake.

Sir Richard Grenville, however, a fortnight after the departure of Sir Francis Drake, arrived with a fresh colony, and left fifty men to establish a settlement; and in 1587, Sir Walter Raleigh, by no means discouraged by his former failure, sent another company to Virginia under Governor White.

On the arrival of Governor White, he found that all the old company had either perished by famine, or were exterminated by the savages. Notwithstanding this deplorable circumstance, he determined on planting a third colony, and left 115 people at the settlement. On the 13th of August this year, Manteo, the first Indian who became a Christian in Virginia, was baptized; and on the 18th of the same month, Mrs. Dare was delivered of a daughter, whom she called Virginia. This was the first child born of English parents in America. What this colony suffered must have been truly distressing; for, when Governor White returned in 1590 with necessary supplies for them, not an individual was to be found. They either died from want of food, or were massacred by the Indians.

* So called by the courtly Raleigh, in honour of the Virgin Queen of England.

Hitherto, every attempt made by any European nation to settle America, proved unsuccessful, except on the part of Spain ; and in 1602 there was not an European in all North America. Two years afterwards, De Monts succeeded in forming a settlement in Nova Scotia, which was the first that became permanent. Companies were formed in London and Plymouth, under patent from King James I., to plant colonies in America ; and Mr. Percy, brother of the then Duke of Northumberland, went out to Virginia, in 1606, and discovered James River. In the following year, the London Company sent to Virginia three vessels under the command of Captain Christopher Newport, who gave the name of Cape Henry to the most southerly point, and began a settlement at James River.

This was the first permanent settlement, named James Town, made by the English in America ; and Captain Newport left 104 persons there, with Edward Wingfield as president. The Plymouth Company, also, sent two ships, under Admiral Gilbert, to North Virginia, with 100 planters, 45 only of whom remained ; and during this year a few huts were built on the north bank of the St. Lawrence, by a colony sent from Dieppe and St. Maloes, at the expense of a company of French merchants.

Notwithstanding all the efforts made by the English to settle America, their attempts were on the point of utter ruin in 1610. Sir George Somers, this year, on his way to Virginia, was wrecked on the islands of Bermuda, where he wintered ; and on arriving the following spring in Virginia, he found the colony reduced from 500 to 60, who, by embarking with him for England, broke up the settlement.

Fortunately, they were met, the day after they sailed, by Lord De la Warre, who was appointed, under a new patent, governor of South Virginia. He persuaded them to return ; and from this period we may date the settlement of North America by England.

In 1614, the Dutch settled New York ; and New Jersey was settled in 1620 by the Puritans, part of Mr. Robinson's congregation ; and New Hampshire, in 1623, at Pisquataqua River, by a small English colony. A colony of Swedes and Fins made a purchase from the Indians of the lands between Cape Henlopen and the falls of the Delaware, which they called Swedeland, and on which they made settlements, and built forts.

The first settlement in Massachusetts Bay was formed in 1628, by Captain John Endicot, who settled there with his wife. Plymouth, which was annexed in 1691, was previously a separate colony. Lord Baltimore, who established a colony at Newfoundland some time before, commenced settling Maryland in 1633. Settlements were also formed in North Carolina in 1628 ; in Connecticut and Rhode Island in 1635 ; in New Jersey (part of New Netherlands) and in Vermont about 1664.

In the year 1669, plantations were made in South Carolina ; and the celebrated Mr. Locke drew up an admirable system of laws for its government.

A regular, just, and prudent plan of colonisation was commenced by William Penn, in 1682, under the right of a royal charter.

He purchased the land from the Indians, whose attachment he secured ; and his colony, which he named Pennsylvania, prospered more rapidly, and with more certain security of success, than any pre-

viously attempted. His measures were wise and just, and his character and example will ever be regarded with esteem and admiration.*

From this period the settlement of America proceeded with astonishing rapidity. Multitudes of men, stimulated by the spirit of adventure, expatriated themselves in order to find in distant countries those

* Of all those that planted colonies, the fame of William Penn shines the brightest, whether we view him as negotiating with the Indians, or giving a constitution to Pennsylvania. On the latter occasion he says,—“Whatever be the form of a government, the people always are free when they share in the legislative power, and are governed only by the laws.”

It is alleged against him, that the value of what he gave to the Indians was trifling in proportion to the vast territory he received from them. This may be true, but it must not be forgotten, that the bargain was fair, and amicably entered into; that the use of those articles given by Penn to the Indians, was to them of immense importance; that the lands, on the other hand, were to them of no value but as hunting-grounds; and that a large tract of country was thus obtained with the free consent and good-will of the original possessors. His conciliatory treaties with the Indians, and the measures he adopted to secure their confidence, were so satisfactory, that they never have “lifted the tomahawk against the race of William Penn.”

Mr. Duncan found a paper in the United States, containing what was said to be Penn's treaty. It stated, “that for all the land between the two rivers, as far as a man could ride in two days with a horse,” Penn was to give the Indians “20 guns, 20 fathoms matchcoal, 20 fathoms stroudwater, 20 blankets, 20 kettles, 20 pounds powder, 100 bars lead, 40 tomahawks, 100 knives, 40 pairs stockings, 1 barrel beer, 20 pounds red lead, 100 fathoms wampum, 30 glass bottles, 30 pewter spoons, 100 awl blades, 300 tobacco pipes, 100 pounds tobacco, 20 tobacco tongs, 20 steels, 300 flints, 30 pair scissors, 30 combs, 60 looking-glasses, 200 needles, 1 skepple salt, 30 pounds sugar, 5 gallons molasses, 20 tobacco boxes, 100 Jew's harps, 20 hoes, 30 gimlets, 30 wooden screw-boxes, 100 strings of beads.”

things, or those enjoyments, which they either wanted in reality, or of which they fancied themselves destitute; and, from the first permanent settlement of those parts of America now forming the United States, the stream of emigration continued to flow into them with little interruption. For, according as men were driven from England, Scotland, or Ireland, either by the pressure of poverty, or disabilities on account of religious scruples, or whether they were allured from home by the golden visions of gain, it was natural, or at least common, for them to remove to those parts of America, where some of their friends or acquaintances had previously gone. Urged by these motives, and to escape also from the oppressive tyranny of the times, thousands emigrated annually to those colonies.

The dread of arbitrary power, either in a political or religious form, was, certainly, the predominant cause of the emigrations that peopled North America. Its settlement was occasioned as much by religious intolerance, which drove thousands of Puritans from England, as by the enterprising passion of adventure, or the more powerful motives which urge men to escape from the evils of poverty. Those very Puritans, however, were no sooner established in the New England States, than they, in their turn, persecuted the Quakers, with all the rage of spiritual fanaticism. *

* Note A. page 57.

CHAP. II.

SLOW PROGRESS OF THE SETTLEMENTS AND COUNTRIES WHICH GREAT BRITAIN ACQUIRED BY THE CONQUEST OF LOUISBURG AND QUEBEC.—EXTRAORDINARY SUFFERINGS ENDURED BY THE EARLY SETTLERS.—PROSPERITY OF THE NEW ENGLAND AND SOUTHERN STATES.—CHARACTER OF THE INHABITANTS.—FAVOURABLE CONDITION IN WHICH ENGLAND PLACED HER COLONIES, ENSURED THEIR PROSPERITY.

It was not until after the reduction of Cape Breton and the conquest of Canada, which added nearly the whole of North America to the British empire, that adventurers, stimulated by the spirit of enterprise, left the mother countries, and established themselves in the newly conquered territories. These were generally persons in trade. Farmers or others, who expected to derive their subsistence from cultivating the soil, directed their course to that part of America now forming the United States.

The American revolutionary war, it is true, arrested the spirit of emigration; but no sooner was the independence of the American Republic acknowledged by England, than the majority of those who left Great Britain and Ireland for America, were, as formerly, fascinated into the United States. This arose, in a great measure, from the mighty resources of the British possessions being imperfectly known in the United Kingdom.

Some Scotch, and a few Irish families, together with a few German and Swiss Protestants, found their way

before this period to Nova Scotia and Prince Edward Island (then called St. John's). A few Highlanders, also, many of whom were disbanded soldiers, settled at Glengarry, and other places above Montreal. It was not, however, until after the American revolutionary war that emigration of any great consequence, to our northern colonies, took place. From that period to the present time, notwithstanding the vast swarms that have annually flocked to the United States, not less than from eight, to lately fifty thousand settlers, have arrived yearly in British America from England, Scotland, and Ireland.

The privations which the early colonists endured, and the hardships to which circumstances, connected with a wilderness country, subjected them, were severe in privations, of which those who now plant themselves in America have scarcely a conception. They had not only to suffer the miseries of hunger, and the want of almost every convenience to which they had been accustomed; but, from the dread of being burnt in their habitations by the Indians, or of becoming victims to the murderous tomahawk or scalping-knife of those savages, they were even denied that relief from toil which sleep usually affords.*

In those countries, which now form British America, with the exception of Nova Scotia, the colonists were

* Before the surrender of Louisburg, rewards were given by the French to the Indians for every English scalp they produced, in much the same way as premiums are at present paid by some of the colonial governments for the snouts of wolves and bears, to encourage the destruction of those animals. The terrible ferocity of the savages was also most wickedly encouraged during the American war; and it was disgraceful to the British authorities to encourage and reward such cruelties.

not so often doomed to experience the terrible vengeance of the Indian tribes; yet the hardships they had to encounter and overcome in other shapes were almost incredible. The winters were either much more severe than at present, or the sufferings of the first settlers made them describe the frosts as more intense, the snows deeper, and the duration of cold longer.

The non-existence of roads, the want of boats, or even for some time of canoes, and the emigrants' ignorance of managing the latter, rendered it a business of great difficulty to pass from one part to another of a country covered with thick forests, and intersected with rivers, lakes, and branches of the ocean. The use of the axe also, or the art of chopping, is an acquirement, indispensable in a wooded country, with which most new settlers are unacquainted. With this tool, a gun, one or two hoes, and a pot, the American backwoodsman will make his way through, or plant himself and family in the midst of, a most dreary forest, and secure, at the same time, the means of subsistence.

Innumerable, indeed, were the miseries which emigrants had to reconcile themselves to for several years after the early settlements of our colonies; and it certainly required in them more than ordinary resolution and fortitude to establish themselves, in defiance of not only real but imaginary difficulties.

Natural obstructions have in all countries been only removed by the industry and fearless intrepidity of man. Such formidable obstacles to settlement and cultivation as the New World at first presented, and which still characterise the remote districts, existed at one period in Britain, and in all the kingdoms of

Europe; and in the same progressive ratio as the settlement and cultivation of any wilderness country proceeds, do natural obstructions disappear: those, therefore, of the most disheartening character to men accustomed to plough the long-cultivated lands of Britain and Ireland, were slowly but gradually overcome in North America. Leading roads were opened through the different provinces, and by-roads to the settlements; the communication by water between different places, by means of craft of various descriptions, became attended with but little inconvenience; the necessities, and even the luxuries of life, were at last, after great endurance and hard labour, to be obtained in abundance at moderate prices, and at no great distance from the most remote settlement.

Although the British possessions in America were, in some respects, naturally inferior to those of other Europeans, yet the security of property, and liberal treatment on the part of government, advanced their prosperity on a more solid foundation.

The majority of the first settlers consisted of hardy yeomen, and men of education, rank, and enterprise, who, in leaving England, forsook their homes, and those comforts that are only found in old countries, and also those attachments that are most dear to the human bosom. But these circumstances alone are not sufficient to do justice to their courage and magnanimity. The victories they obtained over all the complicated hardships that can assail the heart, and stagger the fortitude, of man, exalt their character, in the estimation of those who value facts, rather than military splendour, to a rank equally illustrious, as that of the greatest people recorded in history.

They carried with them to America resolute hearts and intelligent understandings, and that unconquerable spirit of perseverance which surmounts the numberless difficulties that await all great undertakings.

The success attending the actions of such men astonished Europe. Their industry and indefatigable activity ensured their prosperity; their improvements in all the useful arts did honour to their ingenuity; and it must not be forgotten, that, notwithstanding their peculiar circumstances, and the occupations they followed, they were, from the first foundation of their settlements, particularly careful to provide for the education of their children.

Their position was favourable to commerce; and their natural turn and temper, ever aiming at new discoveries, and incessantly employed in the search of whatever might better their circumstances, carried them into every quarter from whence profit could be obtained. There was hardly a port or spot in the American hemisphere, in which business could be transacted, where they were not to be found. Without living in European luxury, they secured all the substantial and comfortable enjoyments of life, with many of its elegancies and refinements.

They in reality became a rich and flourishing people; and if ever any country might have been considered the seat of human felicity, British North America, previously to the sad story of colonial oppression, must unquestionably have deserved the appellation.

England fostered and protected her colonies with parental solicitude, and only secured in return the exclusive right of their trade. Spain and Portugal not only claimed the commerce of their colonies, but,

governing them with despotic tyranny, seized the greatest share of their riches for the benefit of the crown, or for the purpose of upholding the splendour of a church, whose terrible power, aided by the superstition of the age, kept the human mind in servile degradation, and personal liberty under rigorous control.

Holland and France sold the commercial property of their colonies to trading companies; who, in order to make the most of their privileges, took all the advantages that the spirit of monopoly could devise. They not only fixed the value of the articles they sold to the colonists, but they also established the lowest prices for the produce of the lands, and prevented their occupants from growing any more than could be disposed of at an unreasonable profit in Europe.

The British colonies did not experience the like ungracious and illiberal treatment. Satisfied with the general profits of their commerce, England left the trade open to every individual in her dominions; and did not either confine it to particular ports, like Spain and Portugal, nor sell it, as France and Holland did, to a company of traders.

With the exceptions of the northern climes of Europe and the East Indies, the British colonists were permitted to trade with all parts, in a variety of articles. In all the American hemisphere, in Africa, along all the coasts of the Mediterranean, Portugal, and Spain, the vessels of British America enjoyed a lucrative commerce; and they had the amplest liberty of trading with the English West India islands. Rum, sugar, with the produce of their fisheries, they were allowed to carry to all the markets to which they traded; so that, although a number

of articles were exclusively appropriated to an importation to and from Great Britain, yet enough was left for the colonists ; particularly, when we consider that the countries they possessed gave them so much occupation at home.

England, on planting her American colonies, granted them *the full privilege of governing themselves, and the right of forming such laws as the wisdom of their respective legislatures should consider necessary* ; and, in giving them such ample powers to provide for their interest and prosperity, only reserved *the political connection under the same sovereign, with the general benefit resulting to the empire from their trade.*

In short, the conduct of Great Britain in her colonial management, from their first settlement to the year 1755, exhibits a lesson of wisdom to those powers who either possess or who are disposed to plant colonies.

But after that period, those who wish for the partition of great empires will learn useful instruction by studying the history of the measures that led to the independence of the United States.

CHAP. III.

CAUSES OF DISCONTENT IN AMERICA. — RESTRICTIONS ON TRADE. — PROHIBITION OF THE ILLICIT TRADE WITH SPANISH AMERICA. — LICENTIOUSNESS OF THE GUARDA COSTAS. — FAILURE OF REMITTANCES FOR BRITISH MANUFACTURES IN CONSEQUENCE. — PEACE OF 1763. — MEASURES WHICH LED TO THE STAMP ACT. — COMPLAINTS OF THE COLONISTS. — THEIR EXTRAORDINARY PROCEEDINGS. — RESIST THE TEA ACT, AND THROW OVERBOARD THE CARGOES OF THE COMPANY'S SHIPS. — REPEAL OF THE STAMP ACT. — CONDUCT OF THE MINISTRY.

AMONG the first causes of discontent and complaint in the British colonies, were the restrictions which discouraged manufactures, by confining every province to the use of its own, and prohibiting the reciprocal importation of their respective, fabrics. To prevent a whole people from following any branch of industry, is assuredly a measure which human nature cannot bear with tame submission: nor can the severity of the regulation be denied, even on the ground that the articles prohibited could be imported cheaper from England. The injury felt by the prohibition was not, at the time, of much consequence; but the regulation was in itself considered a kind of insult to the understanding, more intolerable than pecuniary oppression.

The discontent arising from this restriction would, in all probability, have passed away, had it not been succeeded by a deprivation of a more serious nature

to the colonies, and equally injurious to the interests of England.

For more than a century, a very lucrative branch of trade had been carried on between the British West Indies and the Spanish settlements in South America. For many years the North American colonies possessed a great share of this advantageous commerce. To the British, it was a pursuit of clear gain, and prodigious value. It consisted of an exchange of vast quantities of all kinds of commodities for the precious metals, which were all remitted to England. The Spanish monarchy, sensible that the trade was ruinous to them, and that the immense advantages of it were on the side of Britain, stationed *guarda costas* to scour the coasts, and to seize every vessel that approached near them. The indiscriminate licence with which they executed their orders provoked the war of 1739 between Great Britain and Spain.

Although it was by no means the business of England to prevent this trade, yet a system was adopted, and pursued, as if a convention had been entered into for the purpose. The British cruisers, as if they had received their commissions and their pay from Spain, acted so effectually, that in a short period they completely destroyed the trade.

In the year 1755, these measures, with some others which restricted the importation of foreign goods, as formerly, free of duty, from Great Britain to North America, produced loud discontent, both in England and America.

The annihilation of the trade with Spanish America was, however, the most grievous. It was from it that the colonists drew the supplies of gold

and silver that enabled them to make large remittances to England, and to provide a circulating specie for the internal use of the colonies. The prohibition of so profitable a commerce shook the vitals of American prosperity, and distressed the manufacturers and merchants of England. The servile complaisance of Great Britain to Spain, and the unwise policy of oppressing its own subjects to oblige foreigners, were complained of by the people of England, as well as by the Americans, but not listened to by ministers.

The peace of 1763 terminated a war which was both advantageous and glorious to Great Britain. The treaty of Paris, besides ceding to her several islands in the West Indies, and establishing her power in the East, gave her the sovereignty of the vast continent of America from the Floridas to the Arctic Sea. The expense of the war, however, was immense, and greatly increased the national debt. Resolutions were soon after taken by ministers to tax the colonies, in order to pay, in a direct and explicit manner, a share of the public burdens.

Their ability was not doubted, and it was considered equitable that they should contribute largely for the advantages they possessed. The colonies were, however, fully persuaded, whatever might be the necessities of the mother country, that, exclusive of the restrictions laid, during late years, on their commerce, the sole enjoyment of their trade was a tax in itself more in proportion than all that were levied on the people of Britain.

The right of taxing them, without their being represented in the British Parliament, they denied, as resolutely as their ancestors did the payment of ship-

money to Charles I.; while they claimed also the privilege of being represented, as their undoubted birthright.

Ministers expressed astonishment on hearing such language from the colonists, and charged them with ingratitude and disloyalty, and with being solicitous only to profit by the generosity of the mother country. The Americans repelled this unfounded charge with indignation. They gloried in calling Britain their mother country; they never disgraced the title; they always obeyed her just and lawful commands; and they submitted, for her benefit, to heavy burdens and commercial restrictions. During the last war, they raised twenty thousand men, and maintained them their own expense; and they fitted out the expedition that took Louisburg in 1745. Antecedent to which, they supplied the British expeditions against Spanish America with several thousands of their best men, and exerted themselves with equal bravery against the French in North America.

They assured the king, in their petition, that, notwithstanding their sufferings, they retained too high a regard for the kingdom from which they derived their origin, to request any thing that might be inconsistent with her dignity or welfare. "These," said they, "related as we are to her, honour and duty, as well as inclination, induce us to support and advance." "At the conclusion of the last war," they go on to observe, in one of their addresses to the king and people of Great Britain, "the Genius of England, and the spirit of wisdom, as if offended at the ungrateful treatment of her sons, withdrew from the British councils, and left the nation a prey to a race of ministers, with whom ancient English honesty and

benevolence disdained to dwell." "They did not complain of Parliament, for it had done them no wrong, but solely of the measures of ministers."

The complaints of the colonists have always been acknowledged temperate and well founded, until the conduct of ministers convinced them that nothing but passive obedience to any measure of taxation would be satisfactory.* That they afterwards, at their countless popular assemblies, but more especially in their public prints, used language both violent and licentious, can neither be denied nor defended; and the outrageous conduct of the populace was not only unjustifiable, but often highly indecorous. Nor were their bitter invectives against the British people, who long wished them success in *resisting* acts which were solely those of ministers, free from ingratitude.

In all countries, however, we meet with frequent examples of violent conduct among the populace, and in none more frequently than in England. It is, therefore, unjust to stigmatise a whole people, by charging them with what should only be considered the clamours of turbulent individuals.

The editors of their public prints were too often

* At the beginning of the troubles of 1775, the united colonies offered to maintain their own civil list, and to give a clear contribution of one hundred thousand pounds per annum for one hundred years, in aid of a sinking fund to pay the national debt of the mother country, with a proviso only of being treated like the other parts of the empire. The contumelious reception of the colonial agents by the ministry, prevented this liberal proposal from being formally made. The state papers, still on record, and drawn by Congress, are distinctly expressive of their sentiment to the above effect. — *Franklin's Miscellaneous Pieces*, p. 257. See also *Jefferson's Correspondence*.

guilty of writing that which could only be intended to keep alive the passions of the vulgar ; and such language as filled the greater portions of the American newspapers must certainly have disgusted men like Washington and Franklin. Violent commotions always attend measures that entirely change the constitution of a country ; but the excesses of the American populace, throughout the struggle for independence, nearly resembled the uproar of those who, with Oliver Cromwell, subverted the government of England ; and the colonists were altogether guiltless of such atrocities as disgraced the French Revolution.

In 1764, a bill was framed, laying heavy duties, payable into the British treasury, in specie, on all articles imported into the colonies from the French and other islands in the West Indies. Another act followed, restraining the currency of paper money. The injustice and absurdity of these laws excited fresh murmurs.

How could they pay duties in specie, when deprived of the means of obtaining it ? Then followed the famous Stamp Act, which was the prelude to the most tremendous and destructive quarrel which had befallen Britain in the course of ages. This act was styled, the "folly of England, and ruin of America."

The colonists were now completely roused ; but they, at the same time, conducted their measures with great wisdom, perseverance, and resolution. They united in a general opposition to the views of ministers, who disregarded their petitions and the statements of their agents ; and, although some acts favourable to the commerce of the colonies were passed, the people became suspicious, and placed no reliance on the

good-will of the British government. Meetings were held, and resolutions were taken to make no further importations from Great Britain; and they, at the same time, encouraged to the utmost their own manufactures. So far did they persevere in this object, that they laid aside the use of elegances, and even abstained from eating lamb, in order to increase the growth of wool.

In England, this measure excited the general indignation of the manufacturers against the ministry.

The suspension of the trade with America, some time after, was followed by a resolution of the colonists not to allow the exportation of provisions; which was seriously injurious to our West India islands, and of severe consequence to the fisheries of Newfoundland.

The opposition to the Tea Act, and the resistance to the landing, and the throwing overboard, of the cargoes of the East India Company's ships, was another alarming proof of resolute determination on the part of the colonists. They then urged, that, until the Stamp Act was repealed, no remittances should be made to England, nor any suit for debt allowed on the part of a resident of Great Britain. It was also threatened that the exportation of tobacco should be stopped; which, if carried into effect, would have cut off the immense revenue derived from its consumption in Great Britain, and the vast benefits gained by its re-exportation to other parts of Europe.

The Americans, in fact, could not possibly have persevered in measures to render the ruling powers of England more obnoxious to the people of Great Britain, or to attract the attention of all Europe more effectually, than those they adopted.

The remonstrances made by the colonies against taxation were listened to by the ruling powers only with anger and indignation; and ministers were equally chagrined and astonished to find that a great portion of the nation espoused the cause of America. But the government disregarded not only all opposition in Parliament, but the remonstrances of the colonists, and the numerous petitions from the principal towns in Britain; and madly proceeded in the prosecution of their impracticable schemes.* The fame and grandeur of Great Britain were, indeed, so great, at this period, that it was never imagined the colonies would presume to dispute any measure dictated by ministers. The splendid triumphs of the British nation in all parts of the world had excited the jealousy of all Europe; and the idea of the colonies risking a trial of prowess with those armies and fleets which had defeated the combined strength of France and Spain, was considered presumptuous and visionary. It was, therefore, matter of astonishment to learn the extraordinary and resolute conduct of the Americans, in opposing the restrictions on their commerce, and the operation of the Stamp Act. The British government were, however, struck with alarm at their behaviour, and determined to subdue them by force.

“The British colonies,” it was contended, “had advantages which those of no other nation ever had.” This was certainly true; and the liberality they had

* Mr. Henry, one of the American delegates, at the meeting of the Continental Congress, said, during a debate on the stamp act, “Julius Cæsar had his Brutus; Charles the First his Cromwell; and George the Third——” here he was stopped by cries of treason, and then concluded by saying, “and George the Third—may profit by the example;—if this be treason, make the most of it.”

so long experienced, rendered the attempts at taxation, and the restrictions on their trade, the more obnoxious. Tithes and poor-rates were unknown; protection they always received; and they enjoyed another advantage, which they could only derive from England. This was the constant course of credit given them, without which they never could have risen to that extraordinary opulence which excited the admiration of Europe. "Would they relinquish these solid advantages, by increasing the displeasure of England, and disclaiming the authority of the parent state, and stand against the consequent peril?" It was also considered, "that the people of America, unacquainted with the intrigues that agitated the courts of Europe, and ignorant of the secret designs that were lurking in the cabinets of ministers, were incompetent to the business of preventing or conquering difficulties, or shunning danger." That no opinion could have been more egregiously wrong than this, was too truly exemplified in the talents of the great men who acted so conspicuous a part during the revolutionary war, and in all their negotiations.

CHAP. IV.

THE COURT OF FRANCE INTRIGUES WITH THE COLONISTS TO BRING ABOUT A SEPARATION FROM GREAT BRITAIN. — CHARACTER OF THE COLONISTS WHO CONDUCTED THE REVOLUTION. — REMONSTRANCES TO THE KING AND PEOPLE OF ENGLAND. — CONCILIATORY PLAN OF EARL CHATHAM. — MR. BURKE'S MOTION IN PARLIAMENT. — INDEPENDENCE OF THE UNITED STATES, ETC.

It was a fact well known, that, from the time France lost Canada, secret intrigues were put in operation by that government, for the purpose of shaking the allegiance of the British American colonists. That they aided in effecting and carrying on the revolutionary war, is certain; but other causes, more powerful than all the address and assistance of France could bring about, governed the colonies, and enabled them finally to establish their independence.

The inhabitants of the four New England provinces were principally the descendants of those stubborn republicans who fled from England to enjoy their own ideas of politics and religion. They retained the hatred of their ancestors to kingly authority, and the strongest aversion to the Church of England. These people were the life and prime support of that opposition, which did not abate until America was lost to Great Britain.

The inhabitants of the other colonies, though numbers of them were of foreign extraction, were more moderate, but not less regardless of their pri-

vileges. Many of them, it is true, particularly the descendants of the felons sent from England, were men of a licentious, audacious spirit, which was not to be awed by the deference due to civil authority; but a great number also, especially in Virginia and Maryland, were men of respectable rank and character, hitherto of a loyal turn, and warmly attached to the mother country.

In fact, the colonies were chiefly peopled with spirited, intelligent, and enterprising individuals, of all denominations, who, at the peace of 1763, were flushed with uncommon prosperity in their commercial pursuits, and by the brilliancy of their military transactions. Their disposition prepared them for great undertakings; and it was difficult to limit their hopes and expectations. It must, at the same time, be remembered, that they used all the means that ingenuity, guided by interest, could suggest, in their remonstrances to the ruling powers, and in their petitions to the king and Parliament, before they assumed the language of defiance, or set up the standard of revolt.

But ministers still disregarded their representations, and treated their petitions with disdain; and a reconciliation was only at last seriously attempted, when the colonists had gained those extraordinary advantages which ensured their independence.

The debates in both Houses of Parliament on the state of America, during the war, will probably never be excelled in splendid diction, powerful arguments, or persuasive eloquence. The language of the colonists, in their petitions to the king, in their appeals to the people of Britain, in their speeches in Congress and in their separate assemblies, as well as

in the pulpit orations of their preachers, was equally remarkable. They certainly did not, for a long time, wish for any thing more than a redress of grievances. The thoughts of independence were foreign to their feelings and their wishes.* "Place us," said they, "in the same situation that we were in at the close of the last war, and our former harmony will be restored."

On the shutting up of the port of Boston, which they considered as a prelude to the destruction of the commerce of other towns, they state, "we will endeavour, therefore, to live without trade, and recur for subsistence to the fertility of our soil, which will afford us all the necessaries and some of the conveniences of life."

One of their delegates to the Continental Congress, in a famous speech, urging the necessity of their taking up arms, which was repeated all over America, and published in Europe, exhibited a strong specimen of the animation and force which governed the resolutions of the colonists. "The great God," said he, "who is the searcher of all things, will witness for me, that I have spoken from the bottom and purity of my heart. It is an arduous consideration we are now upon; and surely we have considered it earnestly. I may think of every gentleman here as I know of myself. For seven years past this question has filled

* When the crisis at length arrived which brought the Americans to abjure their allegiance to the crown of Great Britain, it is well known, that many who were most vigorously opposed to the measures of ministers, experienced the strongest feelings of affection for the country of their ancestors, when the sense of duty to the cause they engaged in, and to the land they lived in and obtained their subsistence from, influenced them to act contrary to the inclination of their hearts.

the day with anxious thoughts, and the night with care. The God to whom we appeal must judge us. If the grievances of which we complain did not come upon us unprovoked and unexpected, when our hearts were filled with respectful affection for our parent state, and with loyalty to our king, let slavery, the worst of human evils, be our portion. Nothing less than seven years of insulted complaints and reiterated wrongs could have shaken such rooted sentiments. Unhappily for us, submission and slavery are the same; and we have only the melancholy alternative left of resistance or of ruin.

“The last petition of the Congress to the king contained all that our unhappy situation could suggest. It represented our grievances, implored redress, and professed our readiness to contribute, for the general wants, to the utmost of our abilities, when constitutionally required.” After adverting to the unfortunate fate of that petition, and stating the necessity of taking up arms, he concluded in the following words: —“Our sufferings have been great—our endurance long; every effort of complaint and patience has been exhausted. Let us, therefore, consult only how we shall defend our liberties with dignity and success. Our parent state will then think us worthy of her, when she sees that, together with her liberty, we inherit her rigid resolution of maintaining it against all invaders. She calls us her children; let us, by the spiritedness of our behaviour, give her reason to pride herself in the relationship.”

Every appeal and remonstrance being disregarded, the evil star of Britain gained the ascendancy, and ministers involved the country in a war that shook the vitals of both hemispheres.

The details of this eventful period, which has already filled many volumes, it is not the object of this work to dwell upon. From the commencement of hostilities to the peace which acknowledged the independence of the United States, the energy, perseverance, and wisdom of the republican leaders, and the strange mixture of obstinacy, weakness, vacillation, and folly of the British councils, which lost the nation the fairest portion of the empire, are equally extraordinary.*

Of all the measures of ministers, employing the Indians during this unnatural war was the most objectionable, or at least the most unwise, and revolting to humanity. The atrocity and cruelty of the savages exasperated the colonists beyond any former sense of injury, and thousands flocked in consequence to the standard of the States, who now, declaring themselves free and independent, abjured their allegiance to Great Britain.

It is the opinion of many that the conciliatory plan proposed by the Earl of Chatham would have saved America; but the famous bill, which he framed for that great purpose, was overthrown by a formidable ministerial majority. They went even so far, in order to give it a most marked and decided rejection, as not to let it even remain on the table. This must have been a severe mortification to so splendid a statesman: — to a giant in legislation and government—whose abilities had raised the empire to unexampled grandeur, —who had directed the

* It would almost seem reasonable to conclude, that the ministry were governed by feelings similar to those expressed by Dr. Johnson, when he said, "Sir, they are a race of convicts, and ought to be thankful for any thing we allow them short of hanging."

measures that wrested Louisburg and Quebec from France, and whose opinion and judgment had once been considered the oracle of the country.

The celebrated plan of Mr. Burke, supported by his eloquent and sound arguments, together with the appeals and remonstrances of the people of England and America, were equally disregarded; and New England, with all the southern states, convinced of unjust treatment, and fired with indignation, were inspired with that determinate resistance and patriotism which finally accomplished their independence.

The American revolutionary war produced men, or rather brought their great talents into action, who may justly be classed with the celebrated heroes and statesmen of ancient and modern times. Those patriots gave life and strength to the war; directed the councils of the country with wisdom and firmness; organised armies, and raised funds to support them; planned an economical and equal system of finance, and formed a practical constitution for the government of the people.

They received, it is true, assistance from France, and they were countenanced by thousands in every part of Europe. These circumstances may be readily accounted for. Liberty, although not generally understood, is so truly the just right of mankind, that even they who never have enjoyed its blessings, nor ever expect to possess them, still appreciate its value. The idea of public freedom, also, is so gratifying to the human mind, that whoever takes up arms either to recover or defend it, is not only certain of the approbation of those who dare to declare their opinions, but also of the secret good wishes of all upon whom arbitrary power enjoins silence.

The assistance, however, afforded the Americans by France, was from far different motives. Any attempt to abridge the supremacy of an European government over her colonies, was any thing but agreeable to the ideas always entertained at the court of Versailles. On this occasion, their grand policy was to humble the power of Great Britain. The consequence, however mortifying to England, was disastrous and terrible to France; and prepared combustibles which exploded in all the horrors of the Revolution, and opened a theatre for the splendid victories, and the final downfall of Napoleon.

The officers sent to America by France, carried back high revolutionary principles and feelings, which were afterwards ingrafted on the philosophy of Voltaire and the *Academy*. These materials soon unfolded themselves, by subverting the whole royal government and constitution, accompanied by outrages and calamities which shocked and disquieted all the nations of Europe and America.*

* The most illustrious of those Frenchmen who devoted their time and money to American interests, was the present venerable and good Lafayette. — He has been honest throughout. But he errs in believing France capable of being governed, like America, under a republican form of constitution. An American lady, at whose house the General is a frequent visiter, observed to me a few months ago at Paris, — “We all love the dear good old Lafayette, the friend of our great Washington; but we could wish he would cease to mix any more with public affairs. He is, indeed, still great, at his Hôtel, Rue Anjou, St. Honoré; but he is yet greater at his country seat, La Grange. In France, the people are generally,” she added, “military, not civil, republicans. In America, our society, — that is, our best society, — is, in principle and feeling, aristocratic. — () constitution alone is republican.” St. Simon, the founder of the St. Simonian system, was also a French officer, engaged in the war of American independence.

England, on the contrary, was still in a glorious and powerful condition. Her arms, except on the continent of America, were triumphant in all parts of the world; and, although the treaty by which England acknowledged the independence of the United States was at that time considered the termination of British grandeur, the prophecy has happily proved false. Great Britain, notwithstanding the unexampled expenses of two long wars, possessed greater resources than any power on earth; and the ministers whose imbecility and perverseness lost America, were supplanted in the royal councils by men of ability and spirit. England, it was true, had lost many of her American colonies, but she still retained others, probably the most important to her as a nation. An impartial and correct account of these, is the principal object of this work. I shall previously, however, in the following chapter, take a brief view of the present condition of the United States.

CHAP. V.

CONDITION OF THE UNITED STATES AT THE PEACE OF 1783.—
WASHINGTON. — CONSTITUTION AND LAWS. — RESOURCES. —
CHARACTERISTICS OF THE PEOPLE, ETC.

At the general peace of 1783, the condition of the United States of America, and the durability of the constitution which they adopted, formed a subject which gave rise to a multiplicity of speculative opinions, most of which experience has since proved erroneous.

It was contended, that when the colonies became independent, they would, from their comparative weakness, lose the respect of foreign nations; that when left to themselves, and not controlled by the mother-country, or awed by foreign powers, their energies would relax; and that civil dissensions would divide them, and subvert a constitution, which, according to its form and the experience of mankind in all ages, must inevitably fall.

The condition of America was, however, very different from all the republics that had previously existed, either in ancient or modern times. The people were generally intelligent; — the great men who conducted their assemblies possessed abilities, solid rather than brilliant, practical rather than theoretical; and they had the good sense and discrimination to adopt the constitution and laws of the most free government on earth, as the groundwork of theirs: making a royal and hereditary chief magis-

trate, a nobility, and a national church, the exceptions of any consequence. Their immense territory, extending along a vast length of sea-coast, abounding with numerous harbours, rivers, woods, fisheries, minerals, rich soils, and almost every climate under heaven, placed all natural advantages in their immediate possession. They enjoyed, also, the benefit of all the knowledge and literature of England, without the labour of translating the language, or paying for the copyright of books; and they had the earliest advantage of our discoveries in the arts, without restrictions as to the right of patents. They had, in short, the knowledge and experience of all ages and countries to guide them, without being shackled by hereditary rights or established usages.

With such extraordinary advantages, as no other people ever possessed, they were enabled to avoid most of the blunders committed by nations, whose constitutions, formed gradually from their birth in the feudal ages, and during the centuries of bigotry, intolerance, and tyranny, down to the periods of liberality and intelligence, were consequently confused and generally incompatible with equal justice and personal liberty. They had, also, the peculiar good fortune, at that period, of being governed by honest men.

Of these personages, the greatest was George Washington. He was appointed to the chief command of the army, solely on account of his personal merit and military abilities. He had served as an officer, in the former war against France, with much well-earned distinction. At the peace, he retired to his patrimonial estate, where he lived as a respectable private gentleman, endeared to all who knew him,

by his amiable character, and unostentatious hospitality, until chosen supreme commander of the American army. During the war, his whole heart and talents were honourably devoted to the great charge which he undertook ; and, when he was afterwards elected President of the United States, his policy was disinterested, liberal, just, and moderate. Truth and utility were the great objects which he had always in view. The powers of his understanding were solid, but not brilliant : — sound judgment was his *forte*. In his deliberations, neither passion, prejudice, party spirit, nor interest, had any weight ; and his decisions, influenced by a good heart and wise head, were always sound and judicious. On many great occasions, which involved the fate of the country and the army, his judgment alone saved both.

In private life he appeared as amiable and good, as he was great and sublime in the exercise of sovereign power or military command. He was, besides, a respectable gentleman of the old school, and retained the observances and dignity at his levees which he witnessed in early life under the British government. Mr. Jefferson once talked to him on this subject, and Washington replied with his usual candour, “ I see we must one day or other come to a form of government approaching to that of England, and I wish to prepare the minds of the people for it.” The high example of his own character, particularly in private life, certainly gave a different tone to public manners, from that which appeared during the administrations of the presidents who succeeded him.*

We must not, however, forget, that all his succes-

* An exception appears in Mr. Madison. He was at heart fond of grandeur, and the *effect* which splendour *lends* to a court.

sors are considered to rank among good men; and some of them, particularly Mr. Jefferson, as great men: but it must, at the same time, be admitted, that they committed many egregious blunders in their commercial policy; and that the last war with this country was not only rash, but impolitic and scarcely provoked.

It has been popular, and even fashionable, in Europe, to think lightly of the Americans. Both French and English travellers, influenced by early associations and customs, have seldom done justice either to the people or to the country. To form a just estimation of both, we must comprehend the great national resources of that vast region, and examine the intellectual and physical energies of the people; — we must ask, What have the Americans done since they became an independent nation? and not measure their capabilities, or stamp their character, by frivolous peculiarities of language, or habits that have differed from ours merely through the agency of local circumstances. These may afford materials to a strolling comedian for exciting vulgar merriment; but it is certainly unworthy the attention, and beneath the dignity of a respectable traveller, to fill his journals with the *cant* language and provincialisms of individuals whom he may accidentally meet with in a stage-coach or at an inn.* No gentleman, who is commonly polite,

* This passage has been harshly condemned in some reviews of the first edition of this work. But I find that other travellers have come to the same conclusion; particularly Mr. Ousely, who was attached to the British legation, and quotes the above. His work contains the most just reflections on the government, manners, and resources of the United States. Mr. Stuart, in his late entertaining work on the United States, and Mr. Ferguson, of Woodhill, in his excellent notes, lately published by Mr. Blackwood, concur in my remarks.

will meet with any thing but kind hospitality and treatment in America ; and as to the peculiarities of their tongue, I need only observe, that I have never met with an American, however humble, whose language was not perfectly plain and intelligible to me ; while I can scarcely understand half of what the country people say, in nearly all the English counties. It is also common to believe, that the Americans cherish a bitter hatred to the people of England. Many circumstances have certainly planted sentiments of dislike to England, or more properly to the government, pretty generally among the citizens of the United States ; but they are, notwithstanding, more kind to Englishmen individually, than to the people of any other country. I may also observe further, that there is much truth in a reply made to me by a member of the legislature of Maine, when conversing with him on this subject : " Sir," he said, " if I were to punish men for abusing countries, I would first knock down the person who stigmatised my own, and immediately after, the one that abused yours ; and you may depend upon it, sir, that this feeling is more general among us than even we ourselves think." The truth is, that their literature, their language, and even their history, except for the last sixty years, are all so purely English, that they cling, unconsciously, by association and habits, more closely to England and Englishmen, than to any other country or people.

A fertile and principal cause of any hatred felt by the Americans against England, arises out of the writings of English travellers, many of whom, even by their own admission, received the most disinterested attentions and kindness from the people of

America. These courtesies they have repaid, by publishing all the foibles they could discover ; ridiculing the oratory of their public men ; and speaking contemptuously of their government and institutions.*

The democratic form of the American government arose, perhaps, as much from necessity, as from any predilection which the leading men of the time cherished for it. There was no one who could assume a claim to sovereign right, and the wealth of the country was too equally divided to give any one person an overwhelming share of power. Washington, Hancock, Franklin, Jefferson, Adams, indeed all the distinguished men and heroes of the revolution, were well aware of this circumstance ; and they were all too honest and patriotic, to allow ambition, or the love of power, to interfere with the real interests of the nation.

The constitution and laws were, however, as nearly accommodated as possible to the former mode of administering the government.

The different States retained their respective representative governments, much the same as before the revolution, with the power of passing laws for their internal administration ; but all the States were united under one general federal government.† This

* Some of these works speak of the Americans in a tone and a spirit which can only exist in prejudice and disappointment, or which must proceed from the mercenary views, cupidity, or prostituted principles of some travellers, or rather compilers.

† It is usually believed, that the first Congress which assembled in America, was on occasion of the troubles that brought on the war of independence. A Congress was, however, held half a century before, and occasionally afterwards, for the purpose chiefly of planning measures to defend the frontiers against the Indians. In 1754, a Congress met, under the suggestion made by the Lords Commissioners for Trade and Plantations, in order to consider the best means of defending the colonies against the French.

head was divided into three estates or branches, consisting of the President, Senate, and House of Representatives.

The last consists now of 213 members and three delegates, or about one for 40,000 inhabitants. They sit two years, when another general election takes place by universal suffrage. The State legislatures have no share, except by party influence, in the general elections. They, however, have each the privilege of sending a member to Congress, where he is entitled to sit and speak, but not to vote.

The Senate, again, is elected by the legislatures of the respective States; each sending two members, which now make forty-eight. The members of the Senate, which may be considered the aristocratic body, must be thirty years old; they sit for six years, but a third are changed every two years.

The president is elected by a body of distinct electors, chosen from within each State. These votes are sent under seal to Congress, who have the right of electing the president, if the candidate has not more than half the number of votes in his favour.

The powers of the president are very extensive. He has the supreme command of the military and naval forces; and, with the approbation of two thirds of the Senate, the patronage of, and appointments to, all civil and military offices. He cannot give a negative to a law, but he can suspend its operations, until it be again presented to him, with the votes of two thirds of both houses in its favour. He is elected for four years, and may then be re-elected.

The powers vested in the central government extend to all negotiations with foreign nations; maintaining and organising the naval and military

forces; the sole regulation of foreign trade; and all matters connected with the judicial revenue and finances.

The *Judiciary* of the United States, or the Supreme Court of Judicature, controls the whole government, so far as to have the power of declaring not only the legislative acts of any particular State, but even those of Congress, unconstitutional, and consequently invalid. For, the people of the republic having declared the constitution to be the supreme law of the land, it is, therefore, considered entitled to implicit and general acknowledgment throughout the Union.

The Supreme Court of the republic, in which a chief justice and six associate judges preside, holds one annual term only at the seat of government; but the whole country is divided into seven great districts or circuits, in each of which two courts are held during the year; one of the assistant judges from the Supreme Court, and the particular justices of the districts, presiding.

The jurisdiction of the Supreme Court extends to all matters in law and equity arising within the Union; to the treaties, regulations, as well as general and particular laws of the republic; to questions affecting public ministers and consuls; to all cases of maritime or admiralty pleas; to controversies between one State and another, or the individuals of different States; to pleas between citizens and foreign subjects; and to all controversies where the United States are generally interested. Each State having superior and inferior courts, appeals are made from these to the Supreme Federal Court, from which there is no appeal.

The Judges of the Supreme Court are appointed by the president, with the concurrence of the Senate, and hold their offices during good behaviour. In the several States the judges are appointed, in some by the governor, in others by the governor and council, and in the rest by the legislature.

Chancery Courts are established in some States; but in others the Supreme Courts are empowered with the jurisdiction to make decrees agreeable to Chancery practice.

The particular laws of the respective States, passed to answer local objects, frequently differ from those of neighbouring States, and create, in consequence, much confusion, which is not easily adjusted, except by the Supreme Court. The common law of England was adopted by the republic after the revolution; and although it has been much altered and modified since that period, it may still be considered the text-book of the American lawyer.

The people of the United States are accused of being litigious — they certainly are so; and the same charge applies with equal truth to the inhabitants of all British America. The reason is obvious. The people, inveigled by low attorneys, or excited by private jealousies or quarrels, fly to litigation on the most trivial occasions. Law is nominally cheap; and the dignity of the courts destroyed by admitting, with little scruple, as an attorney or barrister, any one who has served a few years' apprenticeship to any enrolled attorney.

By this system, a mere amanuensis is placed on a par with gentlemen of extensive legal learning and experience. Next to the cheapness of ardent spirits, what is called "law," is the bane of all North Ame-

rica, applying with equal truth to the United States and the British colonies.

At the United States' bar there is, however, much splendid talent. The Supreme Court, in particular, is the great school of oratory, in which most of their statesmen have been trained. But, there is, both in the United States and British America, a superabundance of lawyers. One third the number, which would probably include all those who have pretensions to ability, would be quite sufficient for every legal and necessary purpose. By their having a fair share of business, the profession would be more generally respectable; trifling cases would be rejected, and the country gradually purged of a ruinous system of litigation.

The fees of the lawyers are by no means high; they are, on the contrary, rather low, even on the principle that "the labourer is worthy of his hire;" and this *cheap law* is itself a great evil, inasmuch as it encourages many to litigate that otherwise would not, and who do not take the value of their time into account.

The judges of all the courts are generally grave, honest, and impartial men; and their opinions and decisions are usually upright and just.*

The salaries of those who administer the government, and preside in the courts, are considered disproportionate to their services and responsibility. In many cases they appear to be so, even to meanness: but they seem, however, to manage very well with the allowances granted them; and the competition

* The present chief justice Marshal cannot be too highly appreciated, as a learned, able, and honest judge, and as a great and good man.

for public appointments is unequalled in any other country.

The president is far from being respectably provided for. His salary is only 25,000 dollars, about 5125*l.* sterling. He is expected out of this to give dinners twice a-week to the members of Congress, eminent foreigners, all public officers, and also to open a building, called the "Whitehouse," once a fortnight, to receive all classes, and often to associate with the lowest of the *profanum vulgus*.

The vice-president receives 5000 dollars, about 1025*l.* The chief-justice, 5000 dollars. Associate judges, 4500 dollars. Other officers at the heads of departments, about 6000 dollars. Ministers of foreign courts, 9000 dollars, about 1950*l.*, and an outfit of the same amount. The Americans pay the officers of their navy much better than our government does.

The general revenue of the United States varies from 25,000,000 to 30,000,000 dollars. This amount is chiefly derived from the customs, and not more than 3,000,000 dollars from the sale of lands; the expense of survey, and collecting the last absorbing a great portion of the amount that lands sell for.

The public expenditure is, about 1,600,000 dollars to pay the whole civil list, — 6,800,000 to maintain military establishments, erect fortifications, internal improvements, Indian affairs, and pensions, — 3,500,000 to support the naval establishments. The remainder goes to pay the interest of the public debt, and towards a sinking fund for its reduction and final payment.

These sums, to conduct the affairs of so great a country, are astonishingly small; but we must not forget that each of the States have their separate

and respective public departments, revenues, and expenditures, the maintaining of which altogether requires great sums.

The military force of America consists chiefly of the militia, which now amount to 900,000 men capable of bearing arms, who would, no doubt, defend their property and country with great bravery; but they would, from want of training and subordination, form a most awkward and unmanageable army. In skirmishing, or in small parties, however, the general use of firelocks makes them deadly marksmen. The government has lately established military schools; from which great improvement in the discipline and training of the militia is expected.

There is also a regular force of about 10,000 infantry. These men are by no means trained like European soldiers; and consist chiefly of the most worthless, indolent, and spiritless people in the country, who, being too lazy to cultivate the soil, or work among the farmers, enlist, for a subsistence, in the army.

The condition of the navy is, however, far different; the regulation and discipline of which can only be equalled by that of England. The beauty of their ships, distinguished for solid construction, excellent and convenient arrangements, have astonished us, after having been accustomed to hear their *fir-built* vessels despised, and talked of with sneering contempt. They have as durable wood in their "live oak," as we can find in England, and let us beware of treating them with indifference.*

* We have, by conceding a participation in our valuable fisheries to the Americans, given them the most effectual means of increasing their naval power. — See *Account of the British American Fisheries*, in this Work.

The present naval power of the United States consists of twelve heavy ships of the line, one sixty-gun frigate, twelve frigates of forty-four guns, three frigates of thirty guns, several smaller vessels, and others on the stocks. At the commencement of the last war, they had only seven frigates. Several large ships of war are on the stocks; and some of them probably launched since the foregoing account was taken.

Their commercial ships are the most beautiful vessels in the world; and, in durability and number, can be equalled by no power on earth but by England.

There is no national church in the United States: much is argued for and against this circumstance, and many regret the want of a church, countenanced, as a standard of faith, by the constitution; but in all matters where the conscience of man should alone control his belief, we must admit that the government of that country acts wisely in not interfering with religious matters. There is, however, no want of religion, of churches, or of places of worship; many of the preachers are raving enthusiasts, the heroes of camp-meetings, and the most prolific cause of nervous complaints among delicate women, whom they frighten into *hysteria*, by their unmerciful and unreasonable extravagances.

Unitarianism was formerly the most prevailing denomination of Christians; Baptists and Methodists are now the most numerous; then follow the Congregationalists, who have the service of the Church of England, cleared of the parts obnoxious to Puritans; Quakers, Catholics, Independents, Presbyterians, &c.: indeed, all Christian sects that we know of, are met

with in the United States. Government recognise none ; nor are any liable to political disabilities on the score of religion.

There is more general knowledge diffused among the people of the United States, than in any kingdom in Europe. Yet there is not among them the same proportion of men celebrated in literature and science, as in many other countries. The Americans are a young, active, and enterprising people. General knowledge, and practical education, are absolutely necessary, in order to follow their adventurous pursuits ; but they seldom have leisure to apply themselves to the tedious labours of literature and science. A few, however, have entered the avenues of literature, and the labyrinths of science and art, of whom America may most justly boast.

Franklin, Jefferson, West, Silliman, Irving, Cooper, Leslie, Martin, Turnbull, and some others, must rank high in their respective departments, as philosophers, authors, and artists.

The colleges, and other seminaries of learning, in the United States, are respectable and numerous ; and the diffusion of knowledge extensive and liberal.

The whole number of colleges are 62, and others will be established according to the increasing population and improvement of the country. The number of theological seminaries are 30 ; of these 1 is Unitarian ; 3 Congregational ; 7 Presbyterian ; 3 Baptist ; 1 Episcopalian ; 2 Protestant Episcopalian ; 1 Evangelical ; 1 German Reformed Church 1 Lutheran ; and 9 Roman Catholic. There are 13 medical schools, and 8 law schools. All these institutions have large and excellent libraries.

The Americans are certainly a reading people, particularly of ephemeral productions. There are more than eight hundred newspapers circulated throughout the United States, besides reviews, and a vast number of magazines. The quarterly journals of science are productions of very great merit. Nearly all the popular works published in this country, and some imported from France and Germany, are reprinted with astonishing celerity, and dispersed all over the republic. Some of the most expensive scientific works have also been republished in the United States. Among others, the celebrated work of La Place has recently appeared, in a form which does it full honour.

The public works of the United States, among which we may notice Erie Canal as the greatest (being in length, with that branching from it to Lake Champlain, above four hundred miles), have all been conducted with spirit; and, from the rapid advances which this already mighty republic has made since the revolution, we are only the more deeply involved in conjecture, the more we enquire into the probable bounds of its power and splendour, when it ascends to the acme of its possible grandeur.

Those vast regions beyond the Alleghany mountains, the most extensive, fertile, and most eminently blessed with a natural inland navigation, of any country in the world, were scarcely known before the revolution. That country now possesses a great population, and all the rudiments of a mighty empire. The population of the republic has already increased to more than 13,000,000, viz. 11,120,000 whites, 350,000 free coloured, 2,201,420 slaves, equal to 13,671,420. The city of New York, in 1790, had

only 30,000; it has now more than 200,000. Philadelphia, and many other towns, have, since then, more than quadrupled the number of inhabitants.

The institutions of the republic, the state prisons in particular, are deserving of much attention; but that which distinguishes the Americans from most other people is their restless spirit of enterprise. To every part of their own country where any gain can be acquired, and, in their ships, to every part of the habitable globe, do they resort. This character of them as a nation has been the great cause of their prosperity, both before and since the revolution; and, according to all probability and experience, it will continue until their gigantic territory has a superabundant population, or until great individual wealth, and consequent luxury, produce the usual effects caused by indolence, voluptuousness, and degeneracy.

The cool indifference, but calculating determination, with which an American moves from the seaboard, or the old states, to the back countries, where he can secure plenty of land for his children to settle around him, is remarkable. Nothing, however, is more common. A whole colony sometimes depart together; and, on arriving at the spot in the wilderness that answers their views, immediately commence the operations of cutting down the trees, and erecting houses; and a town, with its streets, and all the component parts of an American embryo settlement, such as a meeting-house, blacksmith's forge, saw-mill, corn-mill, shops, and taverns, appear on the banks of a river, where a forest occupied the ground a few months before.

It is remarked by almost all travellers, that the Americans are perpetually boasting of the excel-

lence of their constitution. This is certainly the case, and Englishmen seldom like to hear it. Yet we boast of ours; and why not let the citizens of the United States, if they find themselves happy and blessed under their republican form of government, enjoy its full benefit, whether real or imaginary? At farthest, we can only make it a charge of very pardonable national vanity, which we ought to esteem rather than blame them for.

As to the state of society and the manners of the people of America, we must not, although there are no titles, believe that there is no distinction of ranks, and that the people live on a perfect footing of equality. There is, in fact, a more nice discrimination of classes created by the people themselves, than the lines of demarcation marked out by the hereditary titles of our English aristocracy. Wealth and knowledge, which, together, form power in all countries, constitute what, in a moral point, may be termed the aristocratic rights of America. Those who form the first rank consist of the respectable families of the talented men who figured in the revolutionary war; the leading men of Congress, and of public departments; gentlemen of the learned professions; merchants of education and property; and all others of wealth and respectable talents. These people, all over the United States, naturally associate with each other, and as naturally avoid mixing with the next class, which consists of tradesmen, small shopkeepers, tavern-keepers, and others of much the same standing. These, again, shun those beneath them, as the *canaille* of society. Exceptions to this general observation are, however, not infrequent.

As to the manners of the Americans, no one can

detail justly their characteristics. The materials are as heterogeneous as can be well imagined, but, at the same time, greatly modified by circumstances. In general, but especially in the New England States, the men are graver, and, as respects language and carriage, more decorous, than in the United Kingdom. The Virginians have been compared to country squires in England. The American ladies are more formal than with us: this arises from an idea of propriety, and not from a natural coldness, as is often supposed. Assemblies and private parties are frequent. At these the ladies are certainly more reserved; and, although this arises from the fear of doing or saying any thing indecorous, or rather unfashionable, it deprives not only themselves, but the gentlemen, of the pleasurable chit-chat which we enjoy at our balls in this country. The large assemblies are certainly cold and formal enough, but their private parties are by no means so; and a stranger, after a little acquaintance, finds himself both easy and happy. Both ladies and gentlemen dress fashionably, somewhat between the English and French styles. Among the ladies, particularly in the Northern States, we observe some of the most beautiful beings on earth, and as great a proportion of handsome women as in England; but they lose their bloom soon; and those who have the most charming complexions, and most fascinating countenances and graceful figures, become too frequently the early victims of consumption. An Englishman cannot for some time know the American ladies sufficiently well to appreciate justly their kind, affectionate, and amiable virtues. These they assuredly possess in a high degree; but, being of more retired

habits—for which let us blame the American gentlemen,—“they often bloom unseen,” and their excellencies are only known to their friends, or to those strangers whose merit obtains them admittance among families, as *enfants de la maison*.

The United States, being peopled at first by persons who left these kingdoms when public manners were very different from what they now are, and by the adventurous of all classes from other parts of Europe, the inhabitants must retain much of the original habits and education of their ancestors. Time alone will amalgamate these materials, and create a standard which will eventually give a more marked tone to public and private society. The country people of America are blunt, but certainly civil, although often accused of rudeness. I feel safe in considering them not so rude, and certainly not so ignorant, as the peasantry of England. They are never obsequious, it is true; and this arises from their being usually independent in their circumstances. They are, in short, neither polite nor rude, but always civil, unless we assume an authoritative tone. If we do, as some Englishmen are accustomed to, through habit, without meaning any assumption, the Americans will, certainly, neither comply with our requests, nor reply to us in any thing like gentleness of spirit.

The impertinent curiosity with which the people of America are branded, must be considered only applicable to the lower classes in the remote settlements.

In the large towns, the hotels are splendid, and the attendance good, but the waiters are far from being as polite or obsequious as in England. This is certainly a drawback on our ideas of comfort; as we, in this country, consider a hotel, or an inn on the road,

much in the same light, for the time being, as we do our own house, and the waiters as our servants. At the inns, also, on the road in America, we have not much attention shown us as travellers; but we generally find abundance of good things to eat and drink.*

Many people object to the table d'hôte, which is customary at all the hotels in the United States and British America; but I have always found them very agreeable, and I consider them the very best places for travellers to dine at.

The residents who dine at these tables always fly off to their business, immediately after dinner; but there are generally intelligent strangers who remain, whose conversation is agreeable, and from whom much information may be obtained. It is also very wrong to say, as some writers have, that "a guest cannot have a collation, ever so slight, when he wishes for it, but must wait the regular hour of the table d'hôte." A gentleman at any of the hotels may not only have any thing to eat and drink when he wishes, but he may, if he chooses, have a room to himself, and dine when he pleases, though, certainly, by paying higher. It is seldom, however, that any one thinks of leaving the table d'hôte; and doing so would be considered an affectation of greatness, that would gain no additional attendance from the servants, nor any respect from others. The public post and other carriages in America are by no means so comfortable

* Mr. Ferguson observes:—"The hotels are well fitted up; the bed-rooms are not very large, but clean and comfortable; and at Bunkers we found excellent warm baths. Our board was two dollars, 9s., per day, for which we had breakfast, dinner, tea, and supper, with a bed room. Our fare was excellent."

as ours; but the inland navigation of the country, and the splendid accommodations of their steam-vessels, are far superior to any thing of the kind in Europe.

The public amusements are principally theatrical entertainments, which were at last established, after some violent struggles to repeal the absurd legislative enactment that prohibited them. The managers of the principal theatres, and the public patronage, have been sufficiently liberal to induce many of our best actors to visit that country; and they have also some native actors of very fair talents.

Ba^lls, pic-nic parties, water excursions, resorting to the fashionable springs of Saratoga and Balston, are other sources of pleasure. Horse-racing is, however, perhaps the amusement that excites the greatest interest all over the United States.

They have also some barbarous diversions, one of which, "gander-pulling," is considered peculiar to them; but it was long ago a vulgar amusement in England and Scotland.

In the remote countries, and among the raftsmen and lumberers, drinking, fighting, swearing, and gambling are common vices. The brutal operation of gouging is not, at least at present, often known, although some travellers have most falsely stated that every fifth man in Kentucky was deprived of an eye in consequence.

It is rather surprising that, in a republic like America, duels should be more frequent than in Europe; but such most certainly is the case.

Among the blemishes which blot the constitution, and affect the national character of the Americans, the frequency of elections is the most prominent. Every second year, the whole country is agitated

with politics and the intrigues of party. The licentiousness of the press, in particular, seems to have no bounds; and many of the newspapers are at these periods truly disgusting. A fair representation is a great blessing, and the only solid protection of liberty; but the evils of unlimited universal suffrage are pregnant with formidable dangers even to the constitution of the United States. Slavery may be considered another evil which may lead to the subversion of the government; but in this case, the only remedy must be gradual emancipation. No measure could be more cruel to the negroes themselves than granting them immediate liberty. It would, in fact, be depriving them of subsistence, by casting them loose, without the capacity or means to provide the necessaries of life.

As to the constitution itself, or the administration of the government, it would be presumptuous indeed to say that either were faultless, even if the constitution and laws were in themselves perfect, while the passions of men, in republican as well as monarchical governments, influence their public conduct. The attempt of Carolina to nullify the acts of congress will probably be attended with difficulties, which the federal government may find impossible to subdue without coercive measures.

The impolicy of the late tariff, intended to force manufactures at the expense of all other branches of industry, is a blunder only equalled in this age by the embargo which the federal government formerly laid on the exportation of the fruits of the soil.* The

* This paragraph was written three years ago. The present troubles in Carolina prove the justice of the observation.

Americans complain of our government prohibiting their free intercourse with the West Indies and our North American colonies : but their own illiberality, in the burdens imposed on our ships, led to this measure in the British councils.

It is, however, the interest, and ought to be the natural desire, of both countries, that Great Britain and the United States should regard each other with liberal and amicable feelings, free from jealousy, or the recollections of former aggravations, which should now be forgotten as mere family quarrels.

NOTE TO BOOK I.

Page 9.

THE extravagances into which fanaticism will lead or drive the human passions, were never more conspicuous than in New England. The laws of this colony punished witchcraft, blasphemy, worshipping of images, &c. with death. The Quakers were first imprisoned, then most cruelly and severely whipped, and afterwards banished.

So far did those fanatical Puritans, who would "hang a cat on Monday, for killing a mouse on Sunday," go, that for men to wear their hair long was considered not only indecent and anti-scriptural, but a most offensive abomination to the Deity. A proclamation exists among the records of Massachusetts, which declares, that "We, the magistrates, in our zeal for the purity of the faith, expressly condemn the impious custom of letting the hair grow, as indecent, *dishonest*, and horrible to sober-minded persons, inasmuch as it corrupts good manners, and as a custom introduced into England by the Papists, in *sacrilegious* contempt of God, who declares in his holy word, that it is a shameful practice for any man, who has the least care for his soul, to wear long hair. We, therefore, being justly incensed against this scandalous custom, do desire, advise, and earnestly request all elders of our continent zealously to show their aversion from this odious practice, and to exert their utmost powers to put a stop to it, and especially to take care that the members of their church be not infected with it."

A Mrs. Hutchison, the heroine of the female fanatical society of Boston, and at whose house meetings for theological disputes were held nightly, declared in her preachings that a "*radical change*" in the worship of God was absolutely necessary before the colony could expect the smallest blessing, or the least favour, from

the Deity. She maintained, that the doctrine of good works was rather an impediment, than necessary to obtain salvation; and that "the covenant of works is a mere broken reed, which is useless and dangerous, and must be expelled by the impression of the Spirit." These were the darling themes of this fair Antinomian.

Her enemies hatched a story against her, which travelled rapidly over the country, and which enabled them to expel her from the colony. It asserted, that she had at one birth brought forth thirty monsters, answering in hideousness and number to the abominable errors she had promulgated.

She was accordingly banished to Rhode Island; and on being driven from her house during an inclement season, miscarried, and suffered great misery on the occasion. The pressure of poverty and ill treatment drove her afterwards to a Dutch settlement in the state of New York, where she was, with all her family, butchered by the Indians.

During this *fanatical* calamity, the ladies were pretty anxious to establish the right of absolute rule in theological discussions. The wives, in fact, influenced their husbands, and the young women their lovers, so completely, that they generally maintained the claim they arrogated.

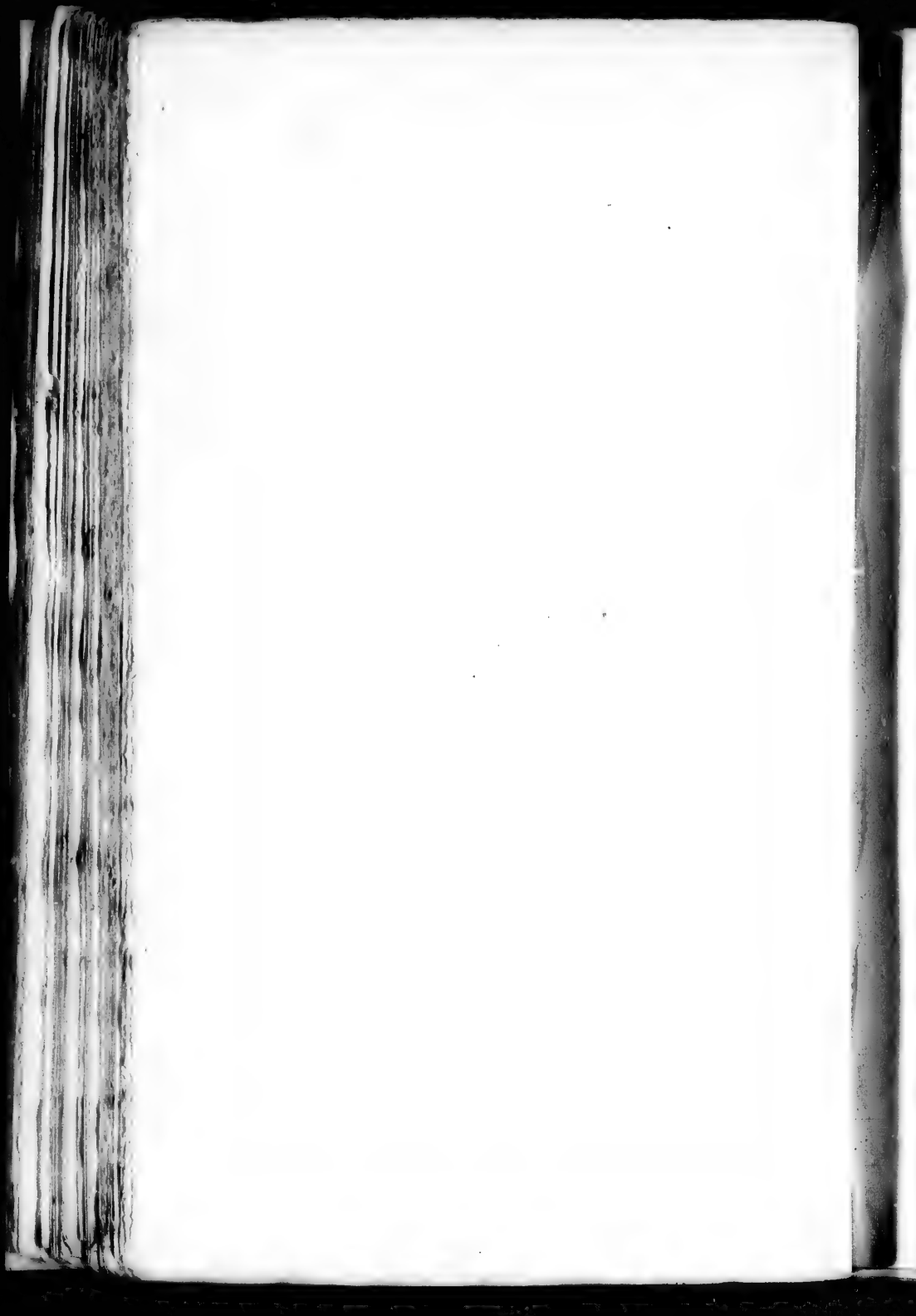
The excesses which belief in witchcraft produced were, if possible, still more extraordinary. This horrible superstition first appeared in the house of a minister at Salem, who had two daughters, afflicted, after the ages of twelve years, with hysterical convulsions. He thought them bewitched; and, fixing his suspicions on an Indian woman, who lived in the house, by severe whipping he extorted from her the confession of being a witch.

The poor savage was accordingly hanged, and her body exposed to birds of prey. Other women, seduced by the pride of exciting public attention, immediately feigned, or brought themselves to believe that *hysteria*, which proceeded only from the nature of their sex, was owing to the influence of infernal agency. Three persons were consequently suspected by them of sorcery, and speedily imprisoned, condemned, and hanged: their bodies, agreeably to the law of the colony, exposed to wild beasts and birds of prey. Fifteen others, with the lawyer who refused to plead against them, were hanged a few days after.

There was no possible security against the infatuated suspicions of persons influenced by wild visionary delusions. The innocence of youth, the infirmities of, and the respect due to age, the most

dignified employments, virgin modesty, virtue itself, afforded no protection against the mad bigots who figure among the annals of Massachusetts.

Children of ten years of age were *solemnly* put to death. Girls were denuded, and the signs of witchcraft searched for with most indecent curiosity. Spots, which appear as the effect of scurvy on aged men, were considered undeniable signs of infernal power. If the public functionaries refused to punish, they were consequently guilty of the crime of sorcery. The most active accusers, however lamentable the circumstance, were the very ministers of *religion*. Dreams, apparitions, and fear, increased these prodigies of folly and wickedness. Fanaticism seized its victims at pleasure, and by cruel tortures extorted confessions. The colony, in fact, was likely to be destroyed, when the *diabolical* malady ceased, almost suddenly. The consequent remorse and repentance, for the *wicked* and *horrible crimes* of which the people were "*awfully*" sensible of having been guilty, were manifested by a *solemn general fast*.



BOOK II.

VIEW OF THE GEOGRAPHICAL BOUNDARIES AND
NATURAL HISTORY OF BRITISH AMERICA.

CHAPTER I.

GENERAL VIEW OF BRITISH AMERICA. — CONFIGURATION. —
PHYSICAL ASPECT, ETC.

THE British possessions in North America are, the islands of Newfoundland, Cape Breton, Prince Edward Island, and Anticosti; the provinces of Nova Scotia, New Brunswick, and the Canadas; the region of Labrador, and the territory west of Hudson's Bay.

By the treaty of 1783 with the republic of the United States, the construction of which is involved in much ambiguity, the river St. Croix, on the sea-coast, and a line *due north* * from a monument erected at its source, to the highlands (evidently Mars' Hill), and from thence, dividing the waters of the rivers which fall into the St. Lawrence, from those that fall

* By referring to the map, it will appear that the words "due north" were inserted, either by mistake, or by better management on the part of the American negotiators, in place of "due west." See the map of New Brunswick.

into the Atlantic, to the north-westernmost head of Connecticut river; thence, down the middle of that river, to the 45th degree of north latitude; from thence, by a line due west, until it strike the river Iroquois, and thence, down to the St. Lawrence, following the middle of that river, and the great lakes to the head of Lake Superior, &c., leaving all the lands north of this line to the Crown of Great Britain.

The commissioners appointed on the part of Great Britain, agreeably to the treaty of Ghent, seem to have been most unaccountably ignorant of the natural configuration of America, and they do not even appear to know which river was, in reality, meant for the St. Croix, but took for granted the one named by the American agents.

If we examine a map of the country lying between the Atlantic and the St. Lawrence, it would naturally appear that the Penobscot was the St. Croix understood at the treaty of 1783. It is also well known, that the general name of St. Croix was given to all the rivers falling into the Atlantic, from Massachusetts Bay to the river St. John, from the French having, on first frequenting the country, erected crosses along the coast, which, from this circumstance, long obtained the name of Terre du Ste. Croix, or Country of the Holy Cross.

As the territory claimed by the United States is of vast importance to the power that may possess it, the final adjustment of the boundary line is an object that will likely be attended with considerable difficulty.*

* The territory in dispute between Great Britain and the United States is considered to contain about 11,000 square miles, or

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The physical aspect of British America presents, along the Atlantic coasts, with but few exceptions, a broken, rugged configuration; in some parts thickly wooded to the water's edge, or to the utmost verge of the most perpendicular cliffs; in others, as along the greater part of Newfoundland, the south-eastern shores of Nova Scotia, and the whole of Labrador, rocks, with dwarfish trees growing thinly among them, predominate. Within the Bay of Fundy, the coast, that of Nova Scotia in particular, is fertile and beautiful; and the features of Prince Edward Island, and the greater part of Nova Scotia and New Brunswick, situated within the Gulf of St. Lawrence, are soft, luxuriant, and picturesque, with trees growing, almost uninterrupted, along the coasts and over the country.

Along the river St. Lawrence, from the Bay de

7,040,000 acres of land, equal, in point of fertility, valuable timber, and beautiful rivers and streams, to any part of America. Should Great Britain cede this territory, the Americans may, in fact, ask us to make them a present of Cape Breton, which will render them so formidable, that, in the event of a war, Nova Scotia and Newfoundland may be with little trouble added to their gigantic possessions.

Since the above paragraph was written, the King of the Netherlands, to whose judgment the question was referred, divided the territory between the parties by giving, very hastily, the best portion to the United States. The latter refuse to abide by the decision; the question is still open. Let the British government beware of giving up this territory. The legislature of Lower Canada should also consider how seriously the encroachment of the Americans will interfere with the prosperity of the province, and the safety of its inhabitants. The question is of vital consequence to Lower Canada.



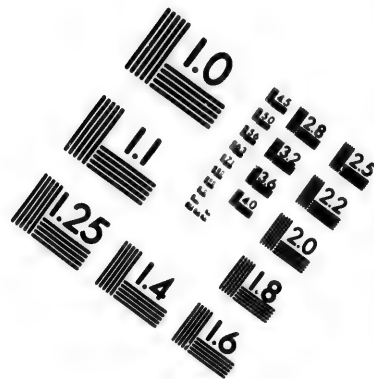
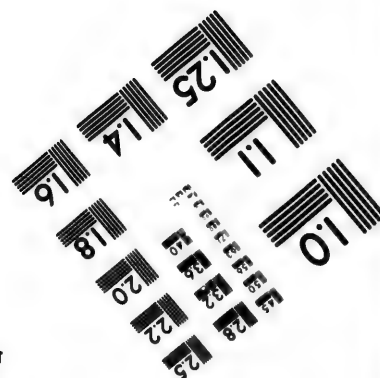
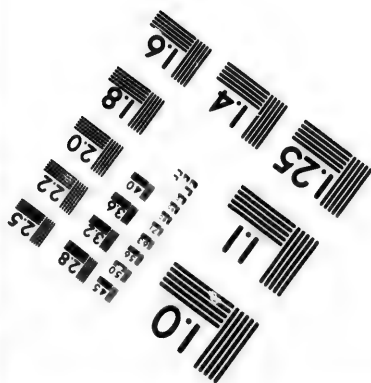
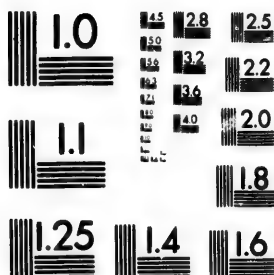


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Chaleur to Quebec, and for some miles upwards, the country is of a bold mountainous character, and covered with dense forests. After passing the high lands above Quebec, the lands on each side of the St. Lawrence are low, fertile, and in most parts of alluvial formation. The country, with few interruptions, maintains this appearance until we reach Queenstone Heights, close to the falls of Niagara; above which, again, along the lakes, a flat country prevails. Wherever cataracts occur, the surface of the adjoining country is unequal. We observe this at Niagara, and at all the falls and rapids of the St. Lawrence and other rivers. The districts lying intermediate between cataracts are usually flat, and of alluvial formation.

The geological structure and mineralogy of the North American regions are, as yet, but very imperfectly known.* A great chain of mountains, known by the general name of the Alleghanies, rises abruptly out of the Gulf of St. Lawrence, at Percé, between Bay de Chaleur and Gaspé, and, following nearly the course of the river St. Lawrence until opposite Quebec, bends to the southward, and, entering the United States, divides the Atlantic coast from the basin of the Ohio. The mountains of North Ame-

* I regret being unable to give a more satisfactory account than will be found in this work, of the geology and mineralogy of America; my knowledge of these interesting subjects being chiefly confined to what I have observed on the banks of rivers and lakes, on the faces of cliffs, and on the shores of the sea. Although America affords to the naturalist a rich field for enquiry, yet it is a task of no ordinary difficulty to surmount the obstacles common to a wilderness country, rendered almost impassable by dense forests, fallen trees, swamps, rocks, mountains, and watercourses.

rica are generally covered to their summits with trees. They have also a greater continuity in their ridges, and more regularity of outline, than those of Europe. They are, besides, far from being so high as those of Europe, Asia, or South America.

The loftiest part of the Alleghanies is but 2958 feet above the level of the sea. Kellington Peak, Vermont, 3866 feet. The Kaatskill Mountains, 3550. The White Mountains, in New Hampshire, 6800 feet. Neither the Algonquin, nor any other mountain north of the St. Lawrence, is considered much above 2000 feet high.

The nucleus of the Alleghany chain appears, and is generally considered to be, granite, which extends from those mountains, and forms the prevailing basis, with some exceptions, however, of all the countries lying between them and the Atlantic, and north of the river Hudson. These territories are also considered to have been frequently convulsed by earthquakes, while those west of the Alleghanies have remained undisturbed.

Limestone, generally in horizontal strata, prevails to the westward of the Alleghany chain, as far as the St. Lawrence and the lakes. On the north of the St. Lawrence, and throughout Labrador, granite predominates; and Sir Alexander Mackenzie remarks, in his Travels, that the great lakes of North America are in a line of contact between vast chains of granite and limestone.

Volney observes, that the granitic range of the Alleghany chain may be said to terminate southward (or, more properly, loses itself to observation) at West Point, river Hudson, on the opposite side of

which sandstone commences, and prevails from the Kaatskill Mountains to the angle of Georgia.

Those vast inland seas, the great lakes, form, with the St. Lawrence and other magnificent rivers, most gigantic features in the geography of North America; to which we may also add the Gulf of St. Lawrence—a Mediterranean—bounded by our territories; the Bay of Fundy, with its extraordinary tides; and the Bay of Hudson, which divides Labrador from the north-western or frozen regions of the trans-Atlantic hemisphere.

The surface of the extensive countries of British America, with the exception of the sterile parts of the north, the savannahs, and where towns and settlements have been formed along the sea-coasts, and on the banks of rivers, is still covered with dense and almost limitless forests, which commence at the sea-coast, and extend to the banks and lakes of the St. Lawrence; beyond which they are succeeded by others of equally gigantic growth, that terminate, with the occasional interruption of a buffalo prairie, only at the shores of the Pacific.

In many of the most extensive districts, we still discover no signs of civilisation, nor any marks of the progress of improvement; and the scenery, in its primeval wildness and natural luxuriance, exhibits what the whole of North America was about two centuries ago, when none but the Indian tribes traversed its woods, and the bark canoe of the savage alone navigated the waters of its Atlantic shores, rivers, and inland seas.

CHAP. II.

FORESTS. — PRINCIPAL TREES, ETC.

THE magnificent splendour of the forests of North America is peculiar to that division of the Western World.

In Europe, in Asia, in Africa, and even in South America, the primeval trees, how much soever their magnitude may arrest admiration, do not grow in the promiscuous style that prevails in the great general character of the North American woods.

Many varieties of the pine, intermingled with birch, maple, beech, oak, and numerous other tribes, branch luxuriantly over the banks of lakes and rivers, extend in stately grandeur along the plains, and stretch proudly up to the very summits of the mountains.

It is impossible to exaggerate the autumnal beauty of these forests: nothing under heaven can be compared to its effulgent grandeur.

Two or three frosty nights in the decline of autumn, transform the boundless verdure of a whole empire into every possible tint of brilliant scarlet, rich violet, every shade of blue and brown, vivid crimson, and glittering yellow. The stern, inexorable fir tribes alone maintain their eternal sombre green. All others, in mountains or in valleys, burst into the

most glorious vegetable beauty, and exhibit the most splendid and most enchanting panorama on earth.*

The forest trees in North America are exceedingly numerous, but in this work it will only be possible to describe briefly the principal timber-trees; among which, those of the pine family claim the first rank.

Michaux describes fourteen species of pine, and there are probably more varieties. Pines do not often grow on fertile soils, at least not in groves; low, sandy, and poor, but not stony lands, are most congenial to their growth.

The yellow long-leaved pine (*pinus strobus*) is the most generally useful; and the great bulk of the timber of commerce exported from America, is of this kind. It grows in great abundance in Canada and New Brunswick, and was formerly in great plenty in the other colonies. It is a magnificent tree, frequently fifteen feet in circumference near the ground, free from branches for seventy or eighty feet, and often more than one hundred and twenty feet in height. Some trees, after being hewn square, and the limbs, with twenty to thirty feet of the top cut off, have measured eight to nine tons, of forty solid feet each.

The pitch pine (*pinus Australis*), also long leaved, and valuable on account of its durability, but more so from its producing principally the turpentine and tar of America. It delights in higher ground than the yellow pine, and seldom exceeds six feet in circumference.

The red pine (*pinus sylvestris*) is often a tall tree, but seldom more than four or five feet in girth.

* I consider that these metamorphoses are caused by the action of frost at this period, on the acids contained in the leaves.

It is the same in kind and quality as the fir imported into the United Kingdom from Norway, in square logs. Until this tree be sufficiently matured, or if it be in a situation where it grows rapidly, it contains a great proportion of *sap wood*; and it is only when this part is hewn away, that the red pine is durable. It is much used in ship-building, and many other purposes, but it is much more rare than any of the other pines. In many parts of Canada, and along some branches of the St. John, it has lately been discovered in extensive groves.

Hemlock spruce (*abies Canadensis*). There are two varieties of the hemlock, the red and white; both are very durable. The lath-wood, imported in billets from America, is principally hemlock. The red splits too freely, and is remarkably full of cracks, or, as the Americans term it, *shakey*. The white is often apt to splinter, but it is close-grained, hard, holds nails or *tree nails* well, and is now much used in ship-building. Its bark is used very generally in America for tanning. There is no wood better adapted for mining purposes or piles; and it is remarkable that iron driven into it will not corrode, either in or out of water. Hemlock-trees generally grow in dry hollows, in groves, and from two to three feet in diameter, and sixty to eighty feet high.

Five varieties of the spruce fir are abundant in all except the northernmost regions; and the dwarf spruce creeps as far north as any tree. The black, grey, white, and red spruce firs, called so from the colour of their respective barks, are the same as those of Norway imported into England for masts, yards, &c. These trees grow to a great height. The black spruce (*pinus abies*) is frequently observed in the

distance like a black minaret or spire, towering twenty or thirty feet above all other forest trees. The spruce firs of rapid growth are not durable, but those growing in bleak situations, or near the sea-coast, are hard and lasting. The wood of all the species is white.

The American silver fir (*abies balsamiferæ*) is that from which the transparent resin, known as Canada balsam, is procured. This balsam is the best possible application to fresh wounds. The Indians use it also as a remedy for several internal complaints. The timber of this tree is seldom used in America, except for fencing rails.

The celebrated essence of spruce is extracted from the black spruce. When the branches are used to make the beer, so common in America, merely by boiling them in water, and adding a few hops and a certain portion of molasses, those of the dwarf trees are preferred.

The hachmatack, or larch, (*pinus larix*), called also in America, tamarac, and juniper, is considered the most durable of the pine family. In some parts, but not generally, it is very plentiful. It attains frequently a great height, but rarely more than two feet in thickness. Its wood is heavy, tough, and becomes hard by seasoning. It burns with difficulty, and does not readily absorb water. In these respects, hemlock resembles it most.

Both red cedar (*juniperus Virginiana*) and white cedar (*cupressus thyoides*) are met with in British America, but not in abundance. The former is found only in Upper Canada, the latter grows in the lower provinces. The largest trees that I have seen, about three feet in diameter, were on the banks of Bona-

towering forest trees. Durable, but on the sea-coast, the species is (miferæ) is known as is the best the Indians complaints. In America, extracted from are used to merely by shops and a dwarf trees called also sidered the e parts, but attains fre- than two ough, and a difficulty, se respects, and white in British er is found the lower een, about s of Bona-

venture river, in the district of Gaspe, at which place the Acadian French use the white cedar, in preference to other wood, for house and ship building. There are two or more varieties of it. One of which is called *Canada cyprus*. It is a beautiful ornamental tree. It has been successfully transplanted from Canada to France; and in the garden of the Petit Trianon, Versailles, there are two or three fine trees of this species.

The common juniper, which yields the berry used in the arts, and which takes two years in ripening, is found in most cold situations, where other trees seldom grow. A creeping variety of fir, called, in America, ground spruce, producing a delicious red berry, and on which cattle delight to browse, grows in many places in great plenty. It differs in its nature from all other varieties of firs, inasmuch as it thrives only in fertile soils.

The oak in England claims the precedence of all other trees; but not so in America. The people of the United States boast much, it is true, of the durability and excellence of their white oak (*quercus alba*). It is certainly a tough, durable wood, and probably equal to the greater part of the oak now cut down annually in Great Britain; but no more in firmness and durability to be compared to the "unwedgeable and gnarled oak of England," than sandstone is to granite. The wood growing in the southern parts, which they term "live oak," is, however, very firm, and remarkably durable; probably as lasting as the old English oak.

The grey, or, more properly, white oak of Canada, is a tolerably close-grained and lasting wood, and much used in ship-building. It is the same, or

differs very little from that of the United States: and it resembles very closely the *quercus pedunculata* of the continent of Europe, and is probably as durable.

The quercitron oak (*quercus tinctoria*) is considered, in the United States, of very lasting quality. The bark also contains a great portion of tannin, but imparts a yellow colour to the leather, and is therefore objected to.

The red oak of America is the most plentiful, but very porous, and of indifferent quality. It is, however, frequently made into staves, and its bark is valuable for tanning.

The beech-tree (*fagus sylvatica*) thrives abundantly, but always on fertile soils. It is, in America, usually a beautiful, majestic tree, and sometimes three feet in diameter. It is useful for the same purposes to which it is applied in England; under water it is remarkably durable, and it affords a great quantity of potashes. Its bark contains a fair portion of tannin, and it produces, every second year, heavy crops of *mast*, or nuts, which are pleasant to the taste, and on which partridges, squirrels, mice, &c. feed; the hogs of the settlers ramble through the woods as soon as the beech-nuts begin to fall, and fatten so rapidly on them, that they acquire one to three inches in thickness of additional fat—not very firm, it is true, in a few weeks.

Two or three varieties of the elm (*ulmus campestris*) are met with in America. It attains much about the same size as the beech-tree, and its quality is fully equal to the best that grows in England. Elm, however, is not abundant in America.

Ash (*fraxinus*). Of this tree there are many varie-

ties, but the common grey ash only, generally called white ash in America, is durable or useful.

The mountain ash (*pyrus aricuparia*) grows in all parts of North America. It is not, however, of the ash, but rather of the birch tribe. It is, in fact, Sir Walter Scott's "rowan-tree." Its foliage and berries make it a pretty ornamental tree.

Of the birch tribe (*betula*) we met with eight, or probably more varieties, known in America by the names of black, white, yellow, grey birches, &c.

The common white birch (*betula alba*) is the most hardy tree that we know. The dwarf white birch grows farther north than any other tree; and, where the rigour of the climate prevents its growing upright, it creeps along the ground, affording food and shelter to birds that resort in summer to high latitudes.

Between the latitudes of forty and forty-eight, we find, in valleys, or where it grows among other timber, the white birch, a fine majestic tree, fifty to sixty feet in height, often two feet in diameter, and for twenty or thirty feet without branches. When growing in this manner, it is known to naturalists as *betula papyracea*, which, however, although differing in appearance, is by no means a distinct variety from the common white birch, which merely assumes a tall, spreading, or dwarfish character, according to the situation and soil in which it grows.

The white birch, although the wood, except under water, be not durable, is still a most valuable tree. It is clean, close-grained, easily worked, and useful for common turners' work. Its inner bark contains excellent tannin, and of the outer bark of the large trees are made the *canoes* used by the savages and Canadian voyageurs.

The yellow birch differs only from the white in its outer bark, which is yellowish, being too thin for any useful purpose, and its wood being somewhat tougher; neither will it grow in exposed situations, nor on barren soils. Its fibres are split open, and worked by the Indian women into baskets, ropes, brooms, &c. The grey birch seldom attains more than eight or nine inches in diameter. It is hardy, and differs only from the dwarf white birch in the colour and texture of the outer bark.

The black birch of America (*betula nigra*) is a magnificent tree, often fifteen to eighteen feet in circumference; its outer bark is rough and dark, the inner bark thick, and full of tannin. The wood is finely shaded and variegated, susceptible of as high a polish as mahogany; and furniture made of choice trees is equally beautiful. It is imported in large square logs from America, and used in this country for many purposes. It makes excellent planks for ships' bottoms; but if exposed to the weather, it is not durable. This might not probably be the case if it were first well seasoned.

The sap drained in March and April, by incision, from all the varieties of birch, makes excellent vinegar, and a pleasant weak wine may be obtained from it by boiling and fermentation.

The Russia leather, used for binding books, is prepared with the empyreumatic oil obtained from the outer bark of the white birch. This bark is very inflammable, and used for torches or flambeaux by the Indians and others, when fishing for eels, salmon, &c. at night.

There are many varieties of the maple (*acer*). Those generally known in America are,—

The white maple, which is straight and close in its fibres, elastic, and slow in burning. The waved maple, which resembles Zebra-wood, is exceedingly beautiful, admits of a very fine polish, and is the same as that generally used for the backs of violins.

The great maple (*acer pseudo-platanus*), generally known in America by the different names of rock maple, from its being hard and tough; bird's eye maple, from its being frequently beautifully mottled like birds' eyes; curled maple, from its being generally curled in the fibres, and richly shaded. It takes a high polish; and beautiful specimens of this wood may be seen in the ornamental work of the cabins of the American packets that come to Liverpool.

The sugar maple (*acer saccharinum*) differs from the great maple in its fibres being generally straight and coarser, its wood not being so hard or compact, and its sap granulating more perfectly. From its juice, principally, is made the maple sugar; although all the varieties of maple that we know of, if we class them agreeably to the saccharine matter contained in their saps, might be called sugar maples.

The process of obtaining sugar from the sap of the maple is simple. In the early part of March, at which time sharp frosty nights are usually followed by bright sun-shining days, the sap begins to run.

A small notch or incision, making an angle across the grain, is cut in the tree, out of which the juice oozes, and is conveyed by a thin slip of wood, let in at the lower end of the cut, to a wooden trough or dish, made of bark, placed below on the ground.

The quantity of sap thus obtained from each tree varies from one pint to two gallons per day. Those who follow the business, fix on a spot where maple-

trees are most numerous, and erect a temporary camp or lodging. When they have as many trees tapped as can be attended to, the sap is collected once or twice a day, and carried to a large pot or boiler hung over a wood fire near the camp. It is then reduced by boiling until it granulates; and the sugar thus obtained is rich and pleasant to the taste. An agreeable sirup is also made of maple sap.

The maple ground occupied by a party is termed a "sugarie;" and those who first commence tapping the trees, consider that possession for one year constitutes right for those years that follow. They often receive, without having any tenure themselves of these lands from the crown, a consideration from others for the right of possession.

There are three or four varieties of poplar, which delight, as in Europe, to grow in low soils. A dwarfish kind abounds where the original wood has been destroyed.

The white walnut, or hickory, (*juglans alba*), generally called butternut-tree in America, is common on intervale or alluvial land, and grows to a considerable size. The nut is edible, and contains about the same proportion of oil as the common walnut. The magnolia and acacia grow well only in the southern parts of North America.

Besides these trees, which, on account of their appearance or usefulness, are the most generally known, many other varieties abound, among which it will be sufficient to name the alder, wild cherry, Indian pear-tree, dog-wood, basswood, hornbeam, or iron-wood, a kind of chestnut, sycamore, sassafras, and white and black thorn. The very great variety of smaller trees, shrubs, and herbs, which abound in

North America, must be left for the professed naturalist to class.

Sarsaparilla, ginseng, as well as many other medicinal plants, are very plentiful, the virtues of which are as yet but imperfectly known. The Indians have vegetable specifics for all the diseases, except those introduced by Europeans, to which they are liable.*

The vine, generally called, in America, maiden hair, (*adanthum capillus veneris* : Linn.) is abundant, growing usually along the sides of dry hollows, or among old fallen trees, but always in the shade. The leaves of it are infused as tea; its berry affords a delicious jelly, from which the once celebrated "sirop de capillaire" took its name.

A root, called, from its colour, blood-root, and from its taste, chocolate-root, is boiled in water, and the decoction used by the Indians as a certain remedy for the most violent attack of colic. It is also taken by them to remove dysentery, &c.; and it alleviates acute pain as readily as opium, without possessing the pernicious qualities of that drug.

A variety of herbs and roots are used by the inhabitants instead of tea, and many of them are grateful to the taste, and probably as conducive to health as the Oriental shrub.

Many varieties of wild fruits abound in North America. Vines are discovered growing indigenous in Canada and Nova Scotia. Cranberries are plentiful, uncommonly fine, and as large as cherries in

* The nuns and catholic clergy prepare a vegetable plaster, which never fails to cure inveterate cancer. The secret they do not divulge. The author is acquainted with several persons who have been perfectly cured by them, after being considered past recovery by very able physicians.

England. Raspberries and strawberries grow naturally in astonishing abundance; also, whortleberries and blueberries. Black and red currants, gooseberries, and two or three descriptions of cherries, grow wild. The fruit called Indian pear is of the most delicious flavour. Juniper-berries, in many places, are very abundant. Hazel-nuts grow wild. There are many kinds of grasses indigenous to the soil of North America; white clover springs spontaneously wherever the land is cleared of the woods.

It seems an extraordinary fact in natural history, that, wherever the original forest is destroyed in America, and the land left uncultivated, trees of a different species should spring up. This is always observed where lands have been laid waste by fire. The first year, tall weeds, and raspberry and bramble bushes, shoot up; then cherry-trees, white birch, silver firs, and white poplars, appear; but seldom any tree of the genus previously growing on the space laid open by the devouring element.*

The great trees of the fir, maple, black birch, and beech tribes, when once destroyed, do not appear to be succeeded in the ground they occupied by trees of the same kind.

* Sir Alexander Mackenzie observes, that, on the banks of the Slave Lake, land, formerly covered wholly with spruce, fir, and birch, having been laid waste by fire, produced subsequently nothing but poplars.

CHAP. III.

WILD ANIMALS. — BIRDS. — REPTILES. — INSECTS. — FISHES,
ETC.

OF the quadrupeds of British America, it will be sufficient, for the purpose of general information, to notice the most remarkable.

The bears of the American forest are of a jet black colour, and are extremely mischievous and annoying to the inhabitants of the remote settlements, destroying black cattle, sheep, and hogs. During winter they retire to some sequestered part of the forest, and select a den, which they prepare by closing it nearly over with branches and sticks, and making a bed within it of moss. During three or four months they live in these dens without food, and, according to the accounts of the Indians and others who sometimes discover them, in a state of torpor, from which, however, they are easily roused.

It is said that a bear, on leaving his den, is nearly as fat as at any period of the year; this is neither probable nor true. The vulgar but absurd belief is, that they live during winter by sucking their paws. Although bears are carnivorous animals, they feed indiscriminately on berries, or any thing in the shape of food. In summer they go prowling about, living on berries; or, if in the neighbourhood of settlers, watch, and come on the cattle, sheep, or pigs in the

evening, or during night. They are particularly fond of ant-hills, of all kinds of insects, and are dexterous in catching smelts, a species of small fish that swarm in the brooks. A great deal is related about the sagacity of bears, and there appear to be but few animals that possess a higher degree of instinct.

Their strength and dexterity are astonishing; and the largest and most spirited bull is soon vanquished and killed by a full-grown bear. They seldom attack a horse; and, unless provoked, will rarely encounter a man. It is said that a bear, on hearing the human voice, will always run off, unless accompanied by its young. They are frequently caught in strong wooden traps, contrived so, that a heavy log, pressed down by several others, falls across the animal's back, and crushes it to death. Indians and others commonly lie in wait to shoot them near the remains of some large animal killed by a bear the preceding night, to which it generally returns, either to devour it, or carry it off. Spring guns are sometimes set, with a string from the trigger to a bait, which, as soon as a bear lays hold of it, fires the gun. If a bear kill or catch either a calf, sheep, or pig, it carries it at once to some distance. An ox or cow seems too heavy a burden, and a part is devoured where it is killed. The fur of the bear, if killed in season, is very valuable, but not now so fashionable as formerly.

The polar, or white bear, is common only on the sea-coast of the cold northern regions of Labrador, Hudson Bay, and the north-west territory. They are seldom found on the land during winter, but go out on the ice. The females that are pregnant, however, seek shelter at the skirts of the nearest woods; these animals, when full grown, are heavier

than most oxen, yet their young are not larger than hares. The female has only two teats, placed between the forelegs. This immense and powerful animal is very shy, and afraid of coming near man; yet, when closely pressed in the water, they will attack a boat, and wrest the oars from the strongest man; but the crew, being always provided with firearms, shoot them as they are attempting to get into the boat. The Esquimaux prefer the skin to any other kind of clothing. They dress it by scraping off the fat, and, rubbing it while frozen in winter, soon make the pelt as beautifully white as the hair is. The flesh is strong, but the people in the service of the Hudson Bay Company consider it very palatable.

Foxes are numerous, and seem to possess all the cunning usually attributed to the species. They do not, however, kill sheep or lambs, nor do they often destroy poultry, as they generally procure sufficient food at less risk in the woods, or along the shores. They are caught in traps, or inveigled by a bait to a particular place, where they are shot by a person lying in wait, during the clear winter nights; at which time the ice and snow deprive them in a great measure of their usual means of subsistence. The fur is much finer than that of the English fox; its prevailing colour is red. Some foxes are jet black, others patched, or of mixed colours, and a few are of a beautiful silver grey colour. In the polar regions they are generally white, and, when destitute of food, will prey on each other. It is said that American foxes, crossed with those of this country, afford the very best sport to the huntsman.

Wolves are found in Labrador, Upper Canada,

and in the territory west of Hudson's Bay. Those most generally killed by the Esquimaux are of a dirty white colour. Although large*, they are not very courageous, not even when pressed with hunger.

Wolvereens are common in the northern territories. They are slow in pace, but strong, acute, and courageous. They will often take a deer from a wolf without any resistance. Their scent is very keen, which enables them readily to find out whatever can be come at to satisfy their voracious appetites.

The marten is a beautiful animal, about eighteen inches long, of a brownish colour, with a patch of orange under the neck. Its fur is valuable; and if not finer, is certainly equal to the Siberian sable, which this animal so nearly resembles, as to be often considered the same. Muffs and tippets of marten skins are fashionable, and much admired.

Hares are in great abundance, and turn white in winter as in Norway. Their flesh is very fine, at least equal to that of the English hare. They are caught in snares, or running nooses, set, during winter, in narrow openings, left at about twenty yards from each other, in a brushwood fence. The noose is attached to a pole, or to a young pliant tree, that springs up on being sprung; and along the line of fence, on a winter's morning, several are found hung up and strangled.

The beaver (castor), whose fur is so valuable, is an animal of astonishing industry, and prudent foresight. In order to secure lodgings and provisions during

* I had a Newfoundland wolf-skin, given me by Mr. Cormack, that was six feet long from the snout to the point of the tail.

winter, they live in a state of society, which resembles the civil compact of man, rather than the mere instinctive gregarious habits of other animals. As they must live near water, and frequently in it, they build dams across running brooks, to create an artificial lake; and in order to accomplish so great an object, they are obliged to labour in concert. The ingenuity with which they construct their dams, and build apartments or lodgings, is truly astonishing. If the water of the river or creek have little motion, they build their dams straight across; but if the current be rapid, they make them with a considerable and regular curve against the stream. All the parts are of equal strength and consistency, and constructed of drift wood, green willows, birch, poplars, mud, and stones. These dams, by constant repairing, often become a solid bank, on which trees soon grow. The beavers sometimes build their houses on lakes, and other standing waters, without dams; but the advantage of a current, to carry down wood and other necessities to their habitations, seems to counterbalance the labour of building a dam.

They construct their houses at a convenient distance from the dam, of the same materials; and the principal objects appear to be, having a dry bed to lie on, and security. The walls, and particularly the roof, are often more than five feet thick; and they never give them the last coat of mud-plaster until the frost sets in, which freezes it so hard, that the wolvereen, the greatest enemy of the species, cannot easily break through. Some of the large houses have several apartments; but it appears that each is occupied by a whole family. There is no passage into them from the land side; and they have vaults on the

banks of the rivers to retreat to, when they apprehend danger. They drag pieces of wood with their teeth; the mud and small stones they carry between their fore-paws and their throat. They execute their work wholly in the night. When the increase of their numbers makes it necessary to erect additional apartments, or when they shift to another situation, they begin to cut down the wood requisite early in summer, and commence building in August; but do not complete their work until cold weather sets in. They feed on the bark of trees, preferring that of the poplar and willow, and float down wood, that they cut in summer, to their habitations, for winter provision; but their principal article of food is a thick root that grows in the bottom of rivers and lakes. In summer, they feed on various herbs, berries, &c.

As soon as the ice breaks up in the spring, they leave their houses, and ramble about during summer; and, if they do not fix on a more desirable situation, return to their old residences, in autumn, to provide the store of wood necessary for winter. The beaver is cleanly in its habits, always leaving its apartments to evacuate its dung or urine in the water, or, in winter, on the ice. They are easily tamed — become fond of human society — are readily taught to eat animal food — always retain their cleanly habits — and are fond of being caressed. They bring forth from two to five at a birth.

The flesh of the beaver is considered very delicious, both by the fur traders and the Indians. The value of the fur is well known: it forms an important and principal article of commercial profit to the Hudson's Bay Company.

The colour of the beaver is a very dark glossy brown; accidental, but very rare, differences occur. Some travellers mention that the white beaver is a distinct species; but Mr. Hearne believes that there is but one kind of beaver, and, during twenty years' residence at Hudson's Bay, he never saw but one white beaver skin; and the beautiful glossy black beaver skins are also merely accidental variations.

Those who hunt beavers in winter, must, to succeed, be well acquainted with their manner of life. When any injury is offered to their houses, they retreat, under water, to their holes in the banks. The Indians often find it necessary to drive small stakes or poles, close to each other, in a line across the river, to prevent the beavers escaping; after which, they endeavour to discover their vaults, or holes, which requires much patience, and is effected by striking the ice along the banks with an ice chisel fastened to a pole. By experience they know, from the sound produced, where the beaver vaults are, and cut, opposite, a hole large enough to admit an old beaver. While the men are thus employed, the women, and those less experienced, are employed in breaking open the houses; and the beavers, finding their residence violated, and not being able to remain long under water, are constrained to retreat and remain in their vaults, where they are secured and taken by the Indians.

The moose, or moose deer, is a large animal, generally six feet high, and often exceeding the size of a tall English horse. It has enormous horns, very short neck, long head and ears, a short tail, and awkward appearance. Its head and hoofs resemble a camel's; its upper lip is much larger than the under,

and esteemed a delicacy. The nostrils are very wide : they have no teeth in their upper jaw ; and their legs are so long and their neck so short, that they cannot graze on the level ground like other animals, but browse on the tops of plants, and the leaves and twigs of trees and shrubs. The males are much larger than the females : the hair of the former is long and soft, nearly black at the points, grey a little under the surface, and white at the roots. The female has no horns ; its hair is of a sandy brown, and under the belly and throat nearly white. It goes eight months with young, and brings forth from one to three at a time. The horns of the male are very different from those of the common deer, palmated at the point, from which a few short branches shoot to nearly the breadth of a common shovel ; they shed them annually, yet their texture is very hard, and their thickness at the root as large as a man's wrist. Their flesh is esteemed a great delicacy ; the fat of the intestines hard, that of the outside soft. In this respect they differ from the common deer, whose external fat is hard ; neither are they gregarious, like the rest of the deer species. Their livers are never sound, nor have they any gall. Their pace is an awkward trot, which the length of their legs enables them to perform with considerable swiftness ; but in a country free of wood, they would soon be overtaken by horsemen. They may soon be domesticated, and they will become more tame than sheep. In summer they frequent the banks of rivers and lakes, in order, probably, to get into the water occasionally, to avoid the multitudes of mosquitoes and other flies that annoy them. They are often killed by the Indians in the water, and, when pursued in this manner,

they make no resistance; and the young ones are so simple as to allow an Indian to paddle his canoe alongside of them, and take hold of their heads, the poor harmless animal swimming along to the shore, apparently as contented as if at the side of its dam. The common deer are much more dangerous. The hide of the moose is dressed into a very beautiful and soft skin, by the Indians.

The common deer are numerous in the western and northern territories. Towards, and within, the arctic regions, they are much smaller than to the southward, but their flesh is more delicate. Their fur is reddish in winter, and light grey in summer. The bucks shed their horns, which are very long and branched, annually, in November. The does have also horns, but much smaller, and they shed them in summer. They are never known to have more than one young at a time; and yet the destruction of these animals by the Indians seems incredible, when we consider how numerous they still are. Of their skins, which require ten to form a complete suit, the Indians principally make their clothing. For this purpose they should be killed in August or September. The Indians also dress deer-skins, without the hair, for light summer clothing, moccasins, thongs to make netting for their snow-shoes, strings for their sledges,—in fact, for most purposes where strings or laces are required.

In October, after rutting time, the bucks generally separate from the does.—The flesh of the common deer of America is excellent, that of the small northern deer is, however, considered the most delicious.

The cariboo is a variety of the deer kind, much

smaller than the moose, and the horns less and rounder, with brow antlers.

The cariboo is not so awkward an animal in appearance as the moose, and it is amazingly swift. The flesh is tender, and the skin, when dressed, soft and useful. The net-work of Indian snow-shoes is made of thongs cut out of the skin, which the Indians use also for moccasins, and various other purposes.

The elk of North America is now rarely met with. It has often been confounded with the moose, but it is quite a different animal. The horns of the elk are not palmated, and are longer than those of any other quadruped. Probably not one of these immense animals is now to be met with east of Lake Superior or the Mississippi.

The species of deer called by the Indians *we-wa-kish*, has been confounded, even by Mr. Pennant, with the moose deer, and by others with the cariboo. Its horns are, in appearance, something like those of the common deer, with fewer branches, and standing more upright. Its head is unlike that of the moose, having small lips, and the nose pointed like that of a sheep. They generally keep in large herds, are the most stupid of the deer kind, and make a shrill braying noise, that often betrays them. Their hair is of a sandy red, and they are usually called red deer by the English fur traders. The flesh is tolerable eating, but the fat is as hard as tallow, and disagreeable to eat, as it hardens immediately in the mouth, even if eaten as hot as possible. Their skins, when dressed, are thinner than those of moose deer, and will wash and dry afterwards as pliable and soft as before, while none of the other leather dressed by the Indians will dry without shrivelling, or becoming

hard, unless great care be taken to keep constantly rubbing it while drying.

The buffalo (bison) delights in wide, open savannas, and abounds, in vast herds, west of the great lakes. They are generally larger, or at least heavier, than the oxen of England. The horns are short, black, nearly straight, and thick at the roots. The skin, particularly about the neck, is very thick. The heads of the bulls are of such immense size, that a man can scarcely lift one from the ground; the heads of the cows are much smaller. The hair is soft, and curled, approaching to wool, of a sandy brown colour, and of an equal thickness over the body. The Indians, after reducing the skins, as they do all other skins, to an equal thickness, dress them in the hair for clothing, which is soft and durable. The flesh of the cows is tender and much like beef; that of the bulls coarse and tough, but not unpleasant to the taste. The hunch on the back is a mere extension of the bones of the withers, surrounded, it is true, with flesh, but not a large fleshy lump, as is generally supposed. They are amazingly strong, will often bend down trees as thick as a man's arm, when rushing through the woods, and plunge along snow four or five feet deep with incredible swiftness: they are not shy, and are easily shot.

The musk ox, although it somewhat resembles, and has been confounded with, the buffalo, is a very different animal. They are generally met with in high latitudes, within the arctic circle, and occasionally, but not in great herds, far south of Hudson Bay. They are fond of mountainous, barren ground, but are seldom found at any great distance from the woods. In size they are, when full grown, as large as the com-

mon run of English cattle, but their legs are shorter, the hunch on their shoulder in proportion small, and their tail short. Though heavy, and apparently of unwieldy structure, they climb over rocks with nearly the ease and agility of goats. Their hair is very long, particularly on the belly, sides, and under the neck. It is of this that the Esquimaux make their mosquito wigs. In winter they are provided with a fine thick woolly fur, growing at the root of the hair, to protect them against the severe cold to which they are exposed. As the summer advances, this fur loosens, and gradually works off. They feed on moss, shrubs, grass, and on the tops of fir or willows. The flesh is not at all like that of the buffalo, and it smells so strong of musk as to be exceedingly disagreeable. That of the calves and young heifers, however, is tolerably delicate. The skins are not of much value. During the rutting season, the bulls are furiously jealous of the cows, and will run madly at any beast or man who may approach them. The Indians attribute the fact of not more than two or three bulls being found in a herd of above a hundred cattle, to the bulls killing each other in combating for the females.

Porcupines are met with, though scarce, over all the wooded continent of North America. The porcupine is a slow, stupid animal : its flesh is very delicate, and the quills are made into a variety of ornaments by the Indian women.

The loup cervier, commonly called the wild cat or Canadian lynx, is of the genus *felinum*, and nearly the height of a greyhound. It has scarcely any tail, and is of a grey colour : the fur is not very valuable. The flesh is white, and considered very delicate.

These animals are rather numerous, and are said to have the treacherous disposition of the tiger. Numbers of sheep are destroyed by them; and one will kill several of these unresisting creatures during a night, as they suck the blood only, leaving the flesh untouched. They are far more courageous than the wolf, and have not unfrequently driven that animal from its prey. There is a variety with a long tail. It is called the catamount, and sometimes the tiger cat, and the American pantheon.

The musquash, or musk rat, is a black animal about twice the size of a large rat. It has some resemblance to the beaver in its habits, and is also a gregarious animal. In winter, when the ponds are frozen over, a whole family build a hut on the ice, with sticks, rushes, and mud. They keep a hole open under this building, for the purpose of getting into the water for fish or other food.

Otters are of the same species as in Europe, but the fur is rather finer. The lesser otter of Canada is the same as the jackash.

The mink is a small black animal, with fine fur. It resembles the otter, and lives in the same manner.

There are four varieties of squirrels—the striped, the brown, the grey, and the flying squirrels. The fur of these beautiful, graceful animals is made into muffs and tippets, and used also for caps and hats by the hatters. They lay up a store of provisions for winter, principally of beach nuts; and if corn-fields be near the woods, these industrious little creatures will assuredly have a share. It is amusing enough to see them running off, with their mouths full of corn, to some hollow tree; and wicked boys consider

the finding out of a squirrel's store by no means an invaluable discovery.

Weasels and ermines are natives of America, as well as of Europe, but they are not numerous.

A great variety of mice are met with.

Bats, but of an inferior size, are common during summer.

The walrus (frequently, but unmeaningly, called sea-horse and sea-cow,) formerly resorted to the shores of the Gulf of St. Lawrence, but is now rarely seen except on the northern coast of Labrador and Hudson Bay, and occasionally at the Magdalen Islands, and near the Straits of Belle Isle. From all the information to be had, they are fond of being in herds, and their affection for each other is very apparent. The form of the body, and of the head, with the exception of the nose being broader, and having two tusks from fifteen inches to two feet long in the upper jaw, is not very unlike that of the seal. A full-grown walrus will weigh at least 4000 lbs. The skins are valuable, being about an inch in thickness, astonishingly tough, and the Acadian French used to cut them into strips for traces and other purposes. The tusks are excellent ivory. The flesh is hard, tough, and greasy, and not much relished even by the Esquimaux. They feed on shellfish and marine plants. They will attack a small boat, merely through wantonness; and, as they generally attempt to stave it, are extremely dangerous. Their blazing eyes, and their tusks, give them a formidable appearance; but, unless wounded, or any of their number be killed, they do not seem ever to intend hurting the men. About forty years ago a crew of Acadian Frenchmen, in a schooner from

Prince Edward's Island, caught and killed a young walrus, in the Gulf of St. Lawrence. A little time after, as one of the men was skinning it in the boat alongside the vessel, an old walrus rose up, and got hold of the man between the tusks and fore-fins, or flippers, and plunged down under water with him, and afterwards showed itself three or four times with the unfortunate man in the same position, before it disappeared altogether.* They have been known at times to enter some distance into the woods; and persons acquainted with the manner of killing them have got between them and the sea, and urged them on with a sharp-pointed pole, until they got the whole drove a sufficient distance from the water, where they killed these immense animals, incapable of resistance out of their element. It is said, that on being attacked in this manner, and finding themselves unable to escape, they have set up a most piteous howl and cry.

There are apparently five or six varieties of seals that frequent the coasts of America, but, with the exception of the harbour seal (*phoca vitulina*), which does not seem to be migratory, it is probable that age and accident produce the difference in size, shape, and colour, that has occasioned their being classed in varieties, as they come down promiscuously on the ice from the hyperborean regions in immense herds. They leave the polar seas with the ice, on which they appear to bring forth their young. On the ice dissolving, they return again to the north. Five kinds are named in the Greenland seas, and these come down to the

* This circumstance is well known, and was related to me several times by the ill-fated man's brother, who was, at the time of the melancholy circumstance, on board the schooner.

coasts of Labrador, Newfoundland, and to the Gulf of St. Lawrence : the harp seal (*phoca Groenlandica*), the hooded seal (*phoca leonina*), and three other varieties, the square flipper, the blue seal, and the jar seal.

Herds of these, many leagues in extent on the ice, seem to have no means of subsistence. Caplin, and other substances, are, it is true, occasionally found in their stomachs ; but from the impossibility of their being able often for a week to get off the ice into the water, it is wonderful that both old and young are exceedingly fat. The flesh is very unpalatable. Many of these seals are beautifully speckled black and white, others grey, and some blue. As the blubber and skins of seals form important articles of commerce, an account of the fitting out vessels for, and the enterprising business of, hunting these animals, will be given in another part of this work.

Of the birds which are peculiar to, or that frequent or breed in, America, probably not half the different species have yet been classed, or are even distinctly known by naturalists.

Pennant, and especially the indefatigable Wilson, and some other men of observation and research, have, with great industry, added to North American ornithology ; yet, notwithstanding all we can expect from the enquiries and perseverance of late travellers, we may safely presume that much is still to be learned. Dr. Richardson's Arctic Zoology, lately published, is an able, and, I can say, most correct work, which may be consulted with pleasure and advantage.

The difference between the feathered tribes of America and those of Europe is great,—the plumage of the former infinitely more rich and splendid ;

the language or music of the latter is more distinctly varied, more rapturous and harmonious.

The birds most generally known in America, according to their common names, are,—

Four or five kinds of owls; the crow and raven, which are the same in kind and habits as those of Europe; woodpeckers, of which there are five or more kinds; snow-bird, red-hooded winter-bird, cat-bird, partridge, or grouse, ptarmigan, blue jay, king's fisher, &c., which remain during the year; and those that migrate to other countries, or that disappear during winter, among which are—the bald eagle, large brown hawk, mosquito hawk, falcon, whip-poor-will, tomtit, yellowbird, magpie, brown eagle, common hawk, martin, wild pigeon, bob-lincoln, bluebird, spring-bird, blackbird, robin, or American thrush; snipe, plover, and spotted godwait, or yellow-legs, and beachbird of the plover species; white gull, grey gull, herring gull, besides more varieties of the gull kind; crane, two descriptions; bittern, wild goose, eight or ten varieties; brent, wild grey duck, black duck, sea-duck, dipper, widgeon, sea-pigeon, or black gullemot, teal, sheldrake, or goosander; loon, or northern driver, three varieties; shag, gannet, penguin; swan, two kinds; dunter goose, or eider duck, very plentiful.

The red-crested woodpecker is in shape and plumage perhaps the most beautiful bird in North America. Its body is shielded by close feathers of black jet, shaded with greenish gold, and its head proudly crested with brilliant scarlet.

The beautiful yellow-speckled woodpecker is the same as the golden-winged bird of Mr. Pennant.

Of owls, the large speckled, the grey, and cat-faced,

are best known: their murmuring, screaming, screeching notes are peculiarly disagreeable, particularly when heard at night in the solitude of dark fir forests, which are their favourite abodes.

Wild pigeons migrate north during summer, in flocks of incredible numbers. They have been known to darken the sky for miles; we do not, however, meet with them in the maritime colonies in such vast multitudes, although very abundant in Upper Canada; and in parts of Lower Canada, they are astonishingly numerous, and very destructive to corn-fields. They have a beautiful blue plumage, tinged with shades of green, red, and gold, and a long tail. They are excellent eating, and their price in the Quebec and Montreal markets, in consequence of their plentiful numbers, is less than the same weight of any other animal food.

The birds called indiscriminately partridges, in America, are different from the partridges of England.

The birch partridge is a large variety of grouse. It is in fact the ruffed grouse. Its colour is beautifully variegated with brown, white, and black. Its handsome tail, which it spreads like a fan, is prettily crossed with stripes of black, light chocolate, and white: they have a beautiful glossy rich purple ruff round the neck, which they can erect at will. They are larger than an English partridge, and equally delicious. They lay ten to fourteen eggs, making their nests on the ground. A peculiarity of this bird is, the noise, resembling distant thunder, which it makes by clapping its wings. When doing so, it generally sits on a fallen withered pine or hemlock-tree, and it is probable that the sound is produced by flapping its wings against the wood.

The spruce partridge resembles the partridge of Europe more than the other; but its flesh is different, and it feeds principally on the branches of spruce fir.

The white partridge of Newfoundland is a species of ptarmigan. All the kinds of partridges are easily shot; sometimes a whole bevy perch on a tree, and remain until shot, one by one, apparently stultified by the first fire. There are no game-laws in North America, unless the provincial laws, which prohibit the shooting or destroying partridges between the 1st of April and the 1st of September be considered such.

Of the wild goose there are several varieties, some of them probably accidental. The common wild goose, of a dark greyish colour, with a large white spot under the neck, is best known, and most abundant; the Canadian goose only differs from it in size. In the more northerly parts, as at Hudson's Bay, the white and snow geese are most abundant.

Wild geese generally appear in Nova Scotia and Canada about the middle of March, and, after remaining five or six weeks, proceed to the north to breed, from whence they return in September, and leave for the south about the end of November. They fly in flocks, and in two regular files, following a leader, from which both lines diverge, so as to form a figure like the two sides of a triangle. They hatch their young in the northern and inland parts of Newfoundland, on the continent of Labrador, and the countries north of Canada. In size, the common wild goose is larger than the domestic goose, and many consider it finer eating. They are decoyed and shot in a variety of ways. They come forward towards the call, that resembles their note while flying. The

Indians and others, who conceal themselves within small houses made of ice, and who have wooden decoys close by, in shape, colour, and size like these birds, bring them within half a gun-shot, by imitating their note, and often at one shot kill several out of a flock.

The brent goose is about half the size of the common wild goose, and nearly of the same colour. It also comes from the south in flocks, flying fast, and often irregularly. They arrive in May, and proceed north, for the purpose of breeding, and return again in September. Their flesh is excellent, but they are shy, and difficult to shoot.

Both black and grey wild ducks are delicious eating. The snipe is considered by epicures equal to the finest in Europe. The large, or Esquimaux curlew is a fine bird, and excellent eating. It abounds along the sea-coast, generally near the water's edge, and, on the wing, requires a good marksman to bring it down. The other species of curlew is much smaller, and found among rocks or barren countries.

Pelicans are only met with in the interior and western parts.

Penguins were formerly abundant within the Gulf of St. Lawrence, where they are now seldom seen, having retired to more northerly latitudes.

All the varieties of plover are shy, and difficult to shoot; but are always sufficiently fat and luscious to make the greatest epicurean rejoice at their appearance, well dressed, before him.

Eider ducks are very plentiful on the coast of Labrador and Hudson's Bay.

Swans are rarely met with on the sea-coast. In the remote interior country, on waters and lakes not

much frequented by man, they are very abundant. The large and the small species breed on small islands in lakes. The eggs of the former are so large, that one of them is a sufficient meal even for a hungry Indian. The large swan usually weighs upwards of thirty pounds, and the smaller about twenty. Their plumage is perfectly white, with black bill and legs.

The reptiles of North America are not very numerous; among the number are a variety of snakes, a few of which only are considered venomous; — the rattlesnake is the most so of any of the serpent kind; but nature has attached to it a singularly constructed continuation of joints, which make a rattling noise whenever the animal moves, and thus put man on his guard. They are not met with in Lower Canada, nor in the maritime colonies. Lizards, red vipers, toads, frogs, &c. abound.

When the spring opens, frogs of different kinds are heard, on fine evenings, singing in various tones. Some sing in a rough, low key, others a pitch higher, and some pipe a treble, or shrill, perpetually; the combination forming what has been termed "a frog concert."

The principal insects are butterflies, of which there are a number of beautiful varieties; locusts, grasshoppers, and crickets; the horned-beetle, bug, adder-fly, black-fly, horse-fly, and sand-fly; mosquito, ant, hornet, wasp, bumble-bee, fire-fly, and a numerous variety of spiders.

The sting of either the wild bee, hornet, or wasp, occasions, for some time, a severe pain, accompanied with slight inflammation. These industrious little animals display great ingenuity in the construction of their nests and combs. The wild bees commonly

build their nests under ground ; the wasps and hornets suspend them to the branch of a tree, and both build them of a substance resembling, when put together, light grey paper.

Mosquitoes and sand-flies are exceedingly annoying during the heat of summer, in the neighbourhood of marshes, and in the woods ; where the lands are cleared to any extent, they are seldom troublesome.

During the beautiful summer nights, one observes, in different directions, lights flashing and moving about, which are occasioned by fire-flies fluttering their wings, from under which a vivid sparkling is emitted.

The varieties of shell-fish are oysters, clams, mussels, razor shell-fish, wilkes, lobsters, crabs, shrimps, &c., and equally delicious as those taken on the English shores.

There are two or three varieties of oysters, the largest of which is from six to twelve inches long, and as fine flavoured as those taken on the British coasts.

The descriptions of fish that swarm round the shores, or that abound on the different fishing banks on the coasts of British America, are very numerous. The following are those most commonly known :— Hump-back whale, and two or three other kinds ; porpoise, horse-mackarel, shark, dog-fish, sturgeon, cod, eel, haddock, ling, hake, salmon, herring, alewife, mackarel, bass, shad, pond-perch, sea-perch, sculpion, trout, scale-fish, tom-cod, halibut, flounder, smelt, caplin, and cuttle-fish, or squid.

The quality of the different varieties of fish may be considered nearly similar to that of the same species caught in the British seas. Some, however, think that the cod, spring herring, and haddock, are, when

fresh, inferior to those in the English market. The herring caught in spring, at which time they enter the bays to spawn, are certainly not so fat; but those taken in autumn are equally as fine. The mackarel is a very delicious fish, and of much finer flavour than those caught on the shores of Europe.

Epicures consider the eels of the very best description. During summer and autumn, the Indians spear them in calm nights by torch-light. The torches are made of the outer rind of the birch-tree, fixed within a slit made to receive the same, in the end of a stick about four or five feet long. When lighted, it is placed in the prow of the bark canoe of the Indian, near which he stands, with a foot on each gunwale, and in a situation so ticklish, as to require the tact of a master to preserve his balance, which he does, however, with apparent ease. A boy, or sometimes his squaw (wife), paddles the canoe slowly along, while with a spear, the handle of which is from fifteen to twenty feet long, he is so dexterous and sharp-sighted, that he never misses the fish at which he darts it. Salmon, trout, and various other fishes, are taken in the same manner.

During winter, eels live under the mud, within the bays and rivers, in places where a long marine grass (called eel-grass) grows, the roots of which, penetrating several inches down through the mud, constitute their food. At this season they are taken in the following manner: — A round hole, about two feet in diameter, is cut through the ice over ground in which they are usually known to take up their winter quarters. The fisherman, with a five-pronged spear, attached to a handle from twenty-five to thirty feet long, then commences, by probing the mud imme-

diately under the hole; and by going round and round in this manner, extending on one circle of ground after another, as far as the length of the spear handle will allow, comes in contact with the eels that lie underneath, and brings them up on the ice. Sometimes, in the early part of winter, we may see from fifty to sixty persons on one part of the ice, fishing eels in this way. Trout, smelt, tom-cod, and perch, are caught in winter with a hook and line, through a hole in the ice; within the Bras d'Or waters of Cape Breton, fine cod-fish are taken during winter in the same manner.

In describing the fishes that abound along the coasts of our American possessions, the tribes that are of the most importance to us as affording food, and the means of employment to man, claim the greatest attention; and nature has, in the seas of those regions, so bountifully answered the necessities of our species, as to create the tribes of fishes most useful to us, in the most abundant multitudes.

The herring and cod are the most generally plentiful. The first, on which the latter feeds, precedes it, and attracts it to the shores of those countries. Then follow myriads of caplin (*salmo arcticus*), always accompanied by vast shoals of cod, which are again kept on the coasts by the multitudes of cuttle-fish (*sepia loligo*), called squid in America, which the domains of the ocean send forth. Alewives and mackarel appear periodically on the coasts, all undoubtedly governed by imperative natural laws, or what we generally explain as animal instinct.

Of the cod, which ranks first in commercial importance, there appears to be four kinds, although their history has not been sufficiently attended to, in order

to determine their relations to each other as species or variety.

The bank cod (which I will take upon me to class *gadus bancus*) frequents the great bank of Newfoundland, and other banks at a great distance from land. It differs from the other species, in its not approaching the shores, its living principally on shell-fish, its body being larger and stronger, its colour lighter, its scales and spots larger, and its flesh firmer.

The shore cod is nearly of the colour of the bank cod, and approaches the shores, and enters the harbours, following the smaller fish on which it feeds. It resembles most the cod on the coasts of Britain, and it is of this kind that the greatest quantity is taken, at least during late years.

The rock or red cod (*gadus callarias*) resembles, but is generally somewhat larger than, the rock cod or red-ware codling of Scotland.

The seal-head cod, called so from its head resembling that of a seal, is the most remarkable and the most rare kind. Other differences are observed in the cod, which may arise from the peculiarity of the coasts they frequent. The livers of the cod farther north are smaller; and less oil is obtained from the bank cod, than from any of the other varieties. It has been calculated that upwards of four hundred millions of cod are caught annually on the coasts of British America.

The migrations of the cod are governed by the movement of the fishes on which they feed. The herring appears along the shores and in the harbours in vast swarms, or, as they are termed, shoals, early in May, for the purpose of spawning; and they may often be discovered from the whitish colour of the

water over them, which is also at times quite smooth, although blowing hard, in consequence of the oily particles thrown off with the spawn.

The cod follows the herring, and remains close to the shores for some time, and then retires two or more miles. On the coast of Newfoundland in June, and on that of Labrador in July, the caplin brings vast swarms of cod; and in August the cuttlefish appears, followed by its voracious enemy.

On the banks, and within the Gulf of St. Lawrence, shell-fish of various kinds are the principal food of the cod. The haddock (*gadus æglefinus*) is much larger than on the coast of Europe, but inferior in quality. It is frequently caught among the common cod; but seldom when "the catch" is abundant.

Herring appear again on the coasts in summer and autumn, and are very fat; those caught in spring are larger, but very poor.

Alewives, or gaspereau, appear on the coast immediately after the herring, within the harbours of the Gulf of St. Lawrence, and on the coasts of Nova Scotia and New Brunswick, but never, I believe, at Newfoundland, or farther north. The gaspereau somewhat resembles the herring, or is rather, in appearance, a small species of shad. The scales are stronger and larger than those of the herring, and on the belly there is a sharp scaly ridge. When fresh, this fish is rather fat, and tolerably good eating; but when salted, it becomes thin, and much inferior to herring. It answers the West India market well, to which it forms an article of export of some importance.

In April, smelts ascend the brooks and rivulets from the sea in vast numbers to spawn. On first

arriving, this delicate fish is excellent; but it soon becomes poor in fresh water.

It remains in the harbour all winter, and is caught with a hook and line through the ice.

Mackarel arrive on the coast in summer, but they are then poor. Those caught in autumn are very fat. Vast quantities are caught with seines and nets; they are also caught with a hook and line, trailing fifteen or twenty fathoms after a boat or vessel under sail.

The caplin (*salmo arcticus*) is about six or seven inches long, and resembles a smelt in form and colour, but it has very small scales. It is delicate eating, but its chief value is as bait for cod. The shores of Newfoundland and Labrador seem to be the favourite resorts of the caplin, as it appears but seldom in the Gulf of St. Lawrence, or on the coasts of Nova Scotia, or farther south. The astonishing numbers of this fish which frequent Newfoundland and Labrador, would appear incredible, were not the fact witnessed by thousands for many years. Dense shoals of them are sometimes known to be more than fifty miles in length, and several miles broad, when they strike in upon the coast, and push into the creeks and harbours. Their spawn is frequently thrown upon the beach in masses of considerable thickness, which a succeeding tide or two generally carries back to the sea.

The cuttle-fish is from six to ten inches long, molluscous, and its shape and organisation peculiar. It is generally caught with jiggers; but hundreds of tons of this fish are thrown up on the flat beaches, and the decomposition which follows, produces the most intolerable effluvia. Newfoundland is also the principal resort of the cuttle-fish. It sometimes appears

at Nova Scotia, Cape Breton, and occasionally at Prince Edward Island.

Salmon resort to the harbours and rivers of Labrador in great plenty, and are often abundant in many of the rivers of Newfoundland. All the rivers within the Gulf of St. Lawrence, and those of New Brunswick and Nova Scotia, are also frequented by salmon. They are generally larger than those that appear in the English market, and are remarkably fine when in season.

- An account of the different kinds of fish abounding in the lake will be found in the description of Upper Canada.

CHAP. IV.

THEORY OF THE CLIMATE OF NORTH AMERICA.

THE temperature of the climate of British America, as well as that of the United States, is extremely variable, not only in regard to sudden transitions from hot to cold, and *vice versâ*, but in respect to the difference between the climate of one colony or state, and that of another.* In remarking generally on the climate of British America, I consider the countries lying between 43° and 47° north as those to which the mean temperature of the different seasons more immediately applies.

The natural climate of Prince Edward Island, Pictou, Truro in Nova Scotia, Fredericton in New Brunswick, and Kingston in Upper Canada, will not differ much from the following outline of the character and temperature of the seasons of America. Countries to the south of those places have warmer atmospheres, while those to the north experience proportionably much more intense cold.

In America, the seasons have generally, though erroneously, been reduced to two, summer and winter. The space between winter and summer is, indeed, too short to claim the appellation of spring, in the sense understood in England; but the duration of autumn

* It is said of Pennsylvania, that it is a compound of all the countries in the world.

is as long as in countries under the same latitude in Europe, and is, over the whole continent of North America, the most agreeable season of the year.

The climate of America is colder in winter, and hotter in summer, than under the same parallels of latitude in Europe, and the daily variations of temperature, which depend on the winds, are also greater; but the transitions from dry to wet weather are by no means so sudden as in England; and we may always tell in the morning whether it will be fair all day or not, except in the case of thunder showers, which come on frequently, during hot weather, in the evening, when not the smallest appearance of a cloud can be seen before mid-day.

The trade-winds, which drive the vapours of the Atlantic into that vortex of suction, the Gulf of Mexico, spread afterwards into currents, and blow in different directions, as diverted by the inequalities of the islands and continent of America. These winds are warm; those blowing from the northern regions, cold and piercing. Rain falls in America in heavier storms, and in greater quantities, than in Europe, but not so frequently.

The summer season may be said to commence about the middle of April, or as soon as the ice disappears in the bays and rivers. In May, the weather is generally dry and pleasant; but it rarely happens that summer becomes firmly established, without a few cold days occurring after the first warm weather. This change is occasioned by the wind shifting from south to north, or to north-east, which brings down along the sea-coast large fields of ice, and which carries along also the cold evaporations that arise in the hyperborean regions. This interruption seldom lasts

for more than three or four days, during which the weather is either dry and raw, or cold and wet.

When the wind shifts to the southward, the temperature soon changes, as the cold vapours are either driven back or dissipated by the heat of the sun, which now becomes powerful.

In latitudes south of 50° N. the southerly winds, at this period, combat and overcome, as it were, those of the north, and, restoring warmth to the air, fine weather becomes permanent. All the birds common in summer make their appearance early in May, and enliven the woods with their melody; while the frogs, those American nightingales, or, as they are often called, bog choristers, also strain their evening concerts. Vegetation proceeds with surprising quickness; wheat and oats are sown, the fields and deciduous trees assume their verdure; various indigenous and exotic flowers blow; and the smiling face of nature is truly delightful, and in grateful unison with the most agreeable associations.

In June, July, and August, the weather is excessively hot, sometimes as hot as in the West Indies, the mercury being 90° to 100° Fahrenheit. Showers from the south-west, sometimes accompanied with thunder and lightning, occur during these months about once a-week, or every ten days, which generally shift the wind to the north-west, and produce for a short time an agreeable coolness.

The nights at this season exceed in splendour the most beautiful ones in Europe. To pourtray them in their true colours, would require more than any language can accomplish, or any pencil, but that of imagination, can execute. The air, notwithstanding the heat of the preceding day, is always pure; the

sea generally unruffled, and its surface one vast mirror, reflecting with precision every visible object, either in the heavens or on the earth. The moon shines with a soft silverlike brilliancy, and, during her retirement, the stars are seen in their utmost effulgence. Fishes of various species sport on the water; the singular note of whip-poor-will is heard from the woods; the fire-fly floats on the air, oscillating its vivid sparks; and where the hand of man has subdued the forest, and laid the ground under the control of husbandry, may be heard the voice of the milk-maid, or the "drowsy tinkling of the distant fold." In another direction may often be seen the light of the birch torch, which the Mick-mack Indian uses in the prow of his canoe, while engaged with his spear in fishing.

In September, the weather is extremely pleasant; the days are very warm until after the middle of the month, but the evenings are agreeably cool, followed by dews at night; and about, but generally after, the autumnal equinox, the serenity of the season is interrupted by high winds and rain. At this period the wind generally blows from some easterly point, and the weather usually clears up, with the wind from an opposite direction.

The season, from this time to the middle or latter part of October, is generally a continuation of pleasant days, moderately warm at noon, and the mornings and evenings cool, attended sometimes with slight frosts at night. Rain occurs but seldom; and the temperature is perhaps more agreeable at this time than at any other, being neither unpleasantly hot nor cold. About the end of this month, the northerly winds begin to acquire some ascendancy over the

power of the south, and there appears in the atmosphere a determination to establish cold weather, and to accomplish a general change of temperature.

Rain, sunshine, evaporations, and slight frosts, succeed each other, and the leaves of the forest, from this period, change their verdure into the most brilliant and rich colours, exhibiting the finest tints and shades of red, yellow, and sap-green, blended with violet, purple, and brown. The peculiar charm and splendour which this change imparts to American scenery, produce one of the richest landscapes in nature; and never could the pencil of an artist be engaged in a more interesting subject.

After this crisis, the air becomes colder, but the sky continues clear; and a number of fine days usually appear in November. There are frosts at night, but the sun is warm in the middle of the day; the evenings and mornings are pleasant, but cool, and a fire becomes agreeable. This period is termed, all over America, the "Indian summer," and is always looked for, and depended on, as the time to make preparations for the winter season. The French Canadians, and Acadians, say the atmospheric warmth, at this time, is caused by the heat of the great blaze of the prairies set on fire by the Indians, west of the lakes, to destroy the grass. However absurd this belief is, it has acquired a firm credence among an ignorant people.

About the end of November, or a little after, the frosts become more severe, and the northerly winds more prevalent; the sky, however, continues clear, and the weather dry, with the exception of a rainy day once in a week, or in every ten days. This month, and often the whole of December, pass away before

severe frosts or snows become permanent, which, the old inhabitants say, never takes place until the different ponds or small lakes are filled with water by the alternate frosts, thaws, and rains that occur, or until a little after the wild geese depart for the south.

Towards the end of December, or the beginning of January, the winter season becomes firmly established; the bays and rivers are frozen over, and the ground covered to the depth of a foot or more with snow. The frost is extremely keen during the months of January, February, and the early part of March—the mercury being frequently several degrees below zero. A thaw and mild weather generally occur for a day or two about the middle of January, and sometimes in February. Thaws take place whenever the wind shifts for any time to the south, and the weather that immediately succeeds, is always extremely cold. The ice then becomes as smooth as glass, and affords a source of delightful amusement to those who are lovers of skating.

The deepest snows fall towards the latter part of February, or the beginning of March; at which time boisterous storms sweep the snow furiously along the surface of the earth, leaving some places nearly bare, and raising immense banks in others. While these last, it may be imprudent to travel, at least on the ice, or over tracts where there is no wood, as it is impossible to see any distance through the drift. The duration of these storms, however, is seldom longer than one or two days; and then the frost is by no means so severe as when the sky is clear. The effects of the cold in winter are sometimes fatal. In clear frosty weather, there is little danger; but the traveller often experiences, particularly during a snow-storm,

or even in clear weather, a drowsiness and indifference to consequences, an inclination to sleep, and, at the same time, little sensibility to cold. Yielding to this influence, to which the whole frame becomes as agreeably disposed as if the person were falling asleep on a feather-bed, is inevitably fatal to life, which appears to be abstracted, with the principle of caloric, from the body by the surrounding cold, and without the least pain; the fluids of the body gradually congealing, until the whole becomes a frozen mass. Exertion alone, until the traveller reaches a house, can save him. Few people at present perish in America during winter; the roads being more frequently travelled, and the inhabitants guarding more effectually against the cold than formerly.

The fine sand-like dust, which consists of snow, in the most minute but intensely frozen particles, and which searches, when whirled along by the impetuosity of the wind, through the smallest chinks of window frames, or the least opening in a house, often leaves large heaps of snow on the floor, in the course of a few hours. The Canadians and Acadians call this kind of drift *La Poudre*.

When any part of the body is frost-bitten, the most effectual remedy—and that which removes the effect of being frozen, which is much the same as that of being burnt—is rubbing the part affected, before approaching a fire or warm room, with snow.

A phenomenon appears frequently during winter, known by the appellation of silver frost. When a fine misty rain takes place, with the wind east or north-east, (the frost not being sufficiently keen to congeal the rain until it falls,) the moment it rests on any substance, it adheres and freezes, incrusting

every tree, shrub, or whatever else is exposed to the weather, with ice. The forest assumes, in consequence, the most magnificent splendour, and continues in this state until it thaws, or until the icy shell is shaken off by the winds. The woods, thus robed, especially if the sun shine, exhibit the most brilliant appearance. Every tree is loaded as if with a natural production of gems, or silver spangles; and there is not probably any thing in the appearance of nature that would more effectually baffle the powers of a landscape painter.

The vernal equinox commonly brings on strong gales from the south, accompanied by a mighty thaw, which dissolves all the snow on the cleared lands, and weakens the ice so much, that it now opens where there are strong currents. Clear weather, with sharp frosts at night, and sunshine during the day, generally succeeds, and continues to the end of March, or the first week in April, when a snow-storm frequently comes on, and severe and disagreeable weather lasts for two or three days. This is the final effort of expiring winter, and is immediately followed by a warmth of temperature, which breaks up the ice and dissolves the snows. The heat of the sun, which now becomes powerful, dries up the ground in a few days; after which, ploughing begins, and the summer season commences.

Although this outline of the general system of the climate is as near the truth as can be stated, yet the weather is often different at the same period in one year from that of another. This difference arises chiefly from the winter season setting in earlier or later; and the same may be observed as regards the commencement of summer. Thus, the winter has been

known to set in, with unusual severity, on the beginning of December, and sometimes not until the middle of January. In some winters, thaws occur oftener than in others; and deeper snows are known in one season than for some years before. The ice breaks up one year as early as the 1st of April, at Montreal and the harbours within the Gulf of St. Lawrence; and it has been known strong enough, on the 1st of May, opposite Charlotte Town, Prince Edward Island, to bear a man across the Hillsborough. It is also generally observed, that mild winters are always succeeded by cold springs.

It cannot, however, with all these variations of climate, be said, with propriety, that the duration of winter is more than four months. Many prefer the winter to the same season in England; and, taking the year throughout, give a preference to the climate. Though the cold is intense for nine or ten weeks, the air is dry and elastic, and free from the chilling moisture of a British winter. On the Atlantic coast, where the frost is less intense, there is more humidity.

It is maintained by some writers, that the air and earth undergo a considerable alteration of temperature when the land is cleared of the wood; first, from the ground being exposed to the sun's rays, which cause the waters to evaporate more copiously; second, by lessening the quantity and duration of snow; and, third, by introducing warm winds through the openings made. From the observations of old people, who have lived fifty or sixty years in America, as well as from the writings of those who visited the new continent many years ago, it appears that the climate has become milder, and that the duration of winter is now

shorter.* Whether this may be attributed to clearing the land of the wood, or to some unknown process going forward in the system of nature, will always remain doubtful.†

That brilliant phenomenon, *aurora borealis*, appears at all seasons, and in various forms. At one time faintly, in distant rays of light; at another, it assumes the appearance of bright floating standards; but more frequently, in the form of a broad crescent of light, with its extremities touching the horizon, and the inner line strongly marked; the space within it being much darker than any other part of the heavens. Its brilliancy in this form is truly beautiful; and, after retaining this appearance a short time, it generally changes into magnificent columns of light, which move majestically from the horizon towards the zenith, until, after having lighted the firmament with the most luminous colours, it suddenly vanishes, but soon re-appears, and again vanishes; and so continues to fade, re-appear, and change infinitely, until its brilliancy intermingles with and fills the atmo-

* It must be remembered, however, that the natural dreariness of a wilderness country, especially during winter, and the slight houses of the settlers, must have had some weight in their accounts of the climate.

† That enterprising traveller, Sir Alexander M'Kenzie, considered that clearing the land of wood occasioned no very sensible diminution of cold. The Baron la Hontan, it is also recorded, left Quebec in 1690, on the 20th of November. If that be true, it is as late as a vessel can or will leave that port at the present time. Potrincourt and Champlain, on a Sunday early in January, 1607, sailed in a boat six miles up Port Royal (Annapolis, Nova Scotia) to visit a corn-field — winter wheat — dined in the sunshine, enjoyed music in the open air, &c. No winter since has been milder.

sphere, and then insensibly disappears altogether. It is frequently said, that a hissing, resembling the rustling of silk, is heard during a brilliant display of aurora. I have seen it appear in a still more luminous and magnificent style than here described, in Labrador; but I never did, nor those with me, observe it accompanied with any noise, although it is by no means improbable.

The winds all over North America vary frequently, and blow at all seasons from every point of the compass.

No wind, however, is so rare as a due north one; a due south wind is also rare, but more frequent than its opposite. Cold, sharp, and dry winds blow from the north-west, and sometimes bring on light showers of snow in the beginning of winter. Winds from the north-east and east; bring on snow storms in winter, sleet and wet weather in spring, and heavy rains in summer and autumn. Thaws take place in winter with a south-easterly wind; after which the wind shifts to the north-west, the sky clears up, and severe frosts follow.* South-west winds, inclining sometimes a point or two southward or westward, prevail through the summer and autumn: these winds are always warm, and usually spring up and blow fresh about noon, and calm off towards evening. At other times a temporary gale comes on, with the wind at south-west, and a heavy rain in two or three hours shifts it round to north-west, blowing cold and dry. Westerly winds incline in summer to the south, and towards the north in winter, and are throughout the whole year more frequent than any other wind.

* The keen north-west wind, during winter, is often called the "Barber" in America.

As the temperature of the climate of America depends chiefly on the winds, the formation of that continent is evidently the cause of the frosts being more intense than in countries in parallel latitudes in Europe; a consequence arising principally from the much greater breadth of America towards the pole. Winds change their character in America. North-easterly winds, which are cold and dry in Europe, are wet and truly disagreeable in America. North-westerly winds are, on the contrary, cold and dry, and frequent, during winter, in America, much about the same periods that north-easterly winds prevail in England. One great, if not the principal, cause of cold in America, is the directions of the mountainous ranges and basins of country, which conduct or influence the course of the winds.

While the sun is south of the equator, the winds, less under solar influence, prevail from the north-west, following, however, the great features of the continent. These winds, blowing over the vast regions of the north, are always piercing and intensely cold. The return of the sun again, by the diffusion of heat, agitates the atmosphere, and alters the winds, which blow from a contrary direction, until an equilibrium is produced. This does not, however, appear to require much time, as the wind seldom blows direct from any one point for more than thirty hours.

The phenomenon of thunder and lightning is accompanied in America with a more splendid though terrific sublimity, than is known in England. The clouds appear to receive from the earth greater doses of inflammable gas, and to be more abundantly saturated with caloric.

The ascent and expansion of a thunder cloud, from

a small spot in the western horizon, has more of the awful majesty of sublimity, than any other phenomenon that I have ever beheld. It commences rising about noon, when it is hot and calm, the sun shining gloriously, and every other part of the sky brightly blue. A little after, a light breeze usually springs up from a point directly opposite to the thunder cloud, which now gradually and slowly moves its white summit upwards, and which not unfrequently exhibits the appearance of immense snow mountains reared over each other, among which imagination easily pictures valleys, ruins, and appearances the most romantic. Meantime, the black gloomy base of the cloud spreads along the horizon; and, as it approaches, we hear the roaring of distant thunder. The wind still blows from a contrary direction until the sun is overcast, and the cloud reaches the zenith: the wind then immediately shifts; the lightning flashes in broad sheets, or in streams of liquid fire, darting in zig-zag serpentine shapes; and the immediate and tremendous detonation of the atmosphere seems to shake the foundation of worlds, while the rain comes down in such torrents as to threaten a second deluge. During these storms, accidents seldom occur; and in the course of two or three hours, the heavens clear up beautifully bright, and the most delightful evening that fancy can create usually succeeds. The vegetable world is refreshed, the animal kingdom recovers from the lassitude occasioned by the oppressive heat of the meridian sun, the birds hop, chirping, from bough to bough, the cattle turn out from the shade to graze, and the purified air of the evening is sufficiently cooled to be truly agreeable.

Volney, speaking of the climate of the United States, says, "Autumnal intermittent fevers, or quotidian agues, tertian, quartan, &c., constitute another class of diseases that prevails in the United States, to a degree of which no idea could be conceived. They are particularly endemic in places recently cleared, in valleys on the borders of waters either running or stagnant, near ponds, lakes, mills, dams, marshes, &c. These autumnal fevers are not directly fatal, but they gradually undermine the constitution, and very sensibly shorten life. Other travellers have observed before me, that in South Carolina, for instance, a person is as old at fifty as an European at sixty-five or seventy; and I have heard all the Englishmen with whom I was acquainted in the United States say, that their friends who have been settled a few years in the Southern or Central States, appear to them to grow as old again as they would have done in England or Scotland.

"If these fevers fix on a person at the end of October, they will not quit him the whole winter, but reduce him to a state of deplorable languor and weakness. Lower Canada, and the cold countries adjacent, are scarcely at all subject to them." The only fever, excepting such as usually accompany severe colds, that has hitherto, as far as I have been able to trace, made its appearance in a fatal form among the inhabitants of British America, is typhus. It is not, however, dangerous, unless it be among the very lowest classes, who pay no regard to cleanliness and diet; and it seldom proves fatal even to them. This fever is by no means so alarming as it is in Europe; it appearing always as typhus mitior, and not in the form of typhus gravior. I have been

informed that erysipelas has lately appeared in New Brunswick in a dangerous shape; the instances in the other colonies must have been very rare. Agues are still common in Upper Canada.

What M. Volney observes regarding premature old age among the inhabitants of the Southern States, is but too true, as well as what he says about another disease — defluxion of the gums, and rotten teeth, common in those countries.* I have not observed among the settlers in British America evident marks of premature old age; and I believe, that in no country do the inhabitants retain their faculties, or health and strength, longer; yet there is no doubt that young people arrive at maturity earlier than in England, and, generally speaking, lose the colour and bloom of youth sooner. I think, too, although it cannot be by any means considered a prevailing disease, that decayed teeth are more common than in Britain. It is truly distressing to see a blooming maid of eighteen, or a young wife, either without front teeth, or with such as are black and decayed. Rheumatisms are more common among the labouring classes in America than in England; this arises from greater exposure to the atmosphere. Colds

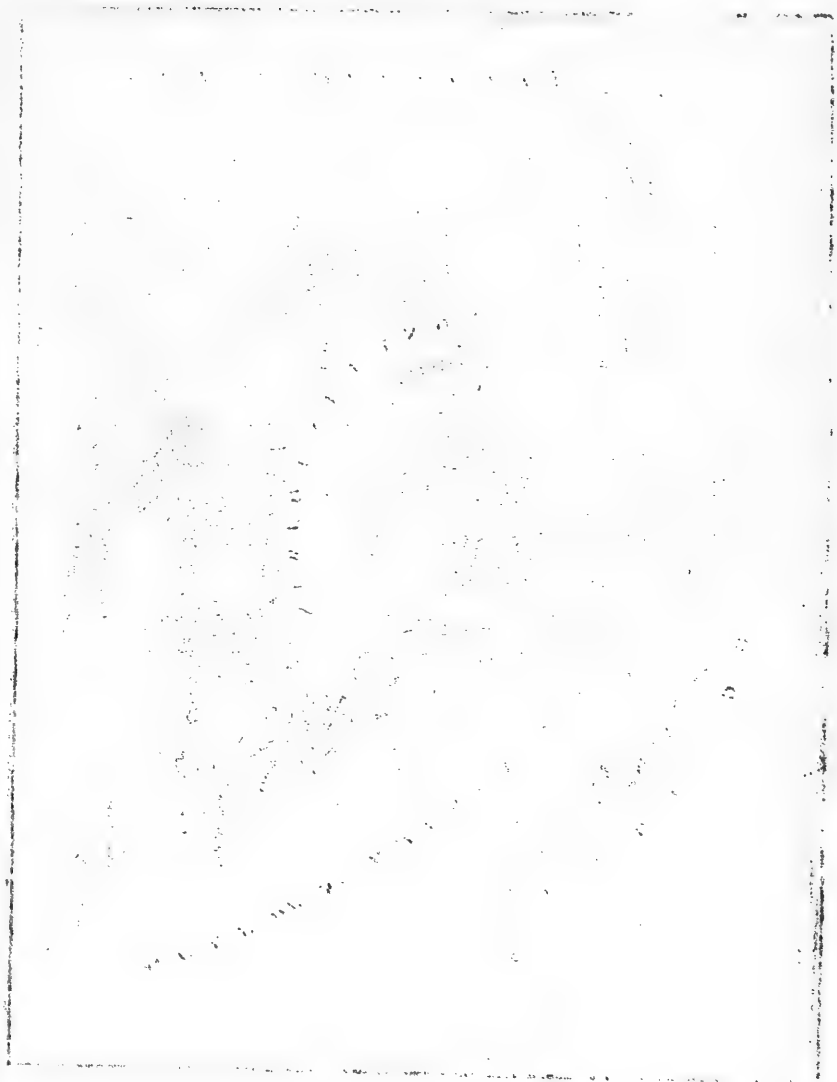
* On coming down the St. Lawrence, from Montreal to Quebec, in one of the large steam-boats on that river, I met with several families from the Southern States, who had travelled north to visit the Canadas, and to avoid the excessive summer heat of Pennsylvania and Carolina. Among the whole, I did not observe any who possessed the bloom and florid complexion so common in the United Kingdom. I would willingly have excepted a young lady, whose figure was extremely graceful and elegant, and whose features were beautiful. In England I would have said her age was twenty-four years. I was told, and believe it, she was not eighteen.

may certainly be considered the prevailing generators of diseases, particularly of pulmonary consumption, which proves as frequently fatal to young married women and girls, at the age of youth and beauty, as in England or France. Bilious complaints are seldom known. Nervous disorders, the prime curse of civilisation and ease, are more common in the United States than in British America ; but not so general in either as in England.

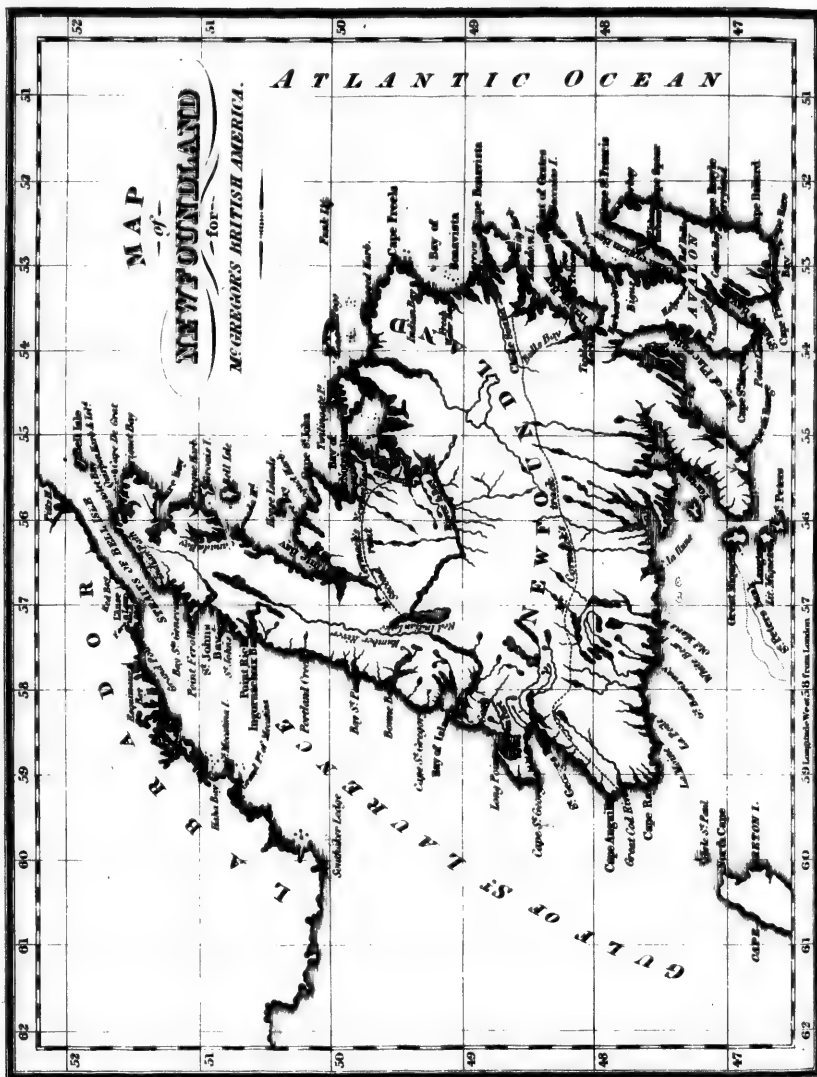
I perfectly concur with other travellers, who have observed that the hosts of gloomy, low-educated preachers who wander throughout America, are prolific causes of nervous affections. These men, whom we will, in charity, call fanatics, shake the nerves of young innocent women, by roaring out their perpetual theme of preaching — the doctrine of eternal punishment, and dwelling but feebly on the reasonable principles of God's merciful justice.

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A T L A N T I C O C E A N



BOOK III.

NEWFOUNDLAND.

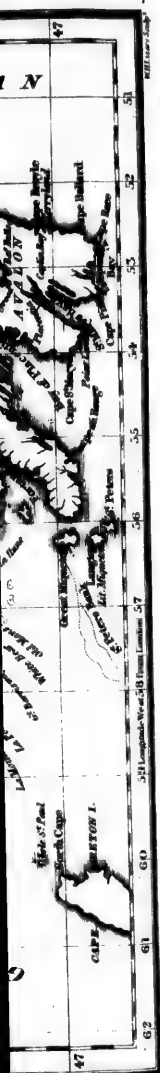
CHAPTER I.

GENERAL DESCRIPTION OF NEWFOUNDLAND. — MR. CORMACK'S
JOURNEY ACROSS THE INTERIOR COUNTRY. — CLIMATE. —
SOIL. — NATURAL PRODUCTIONS, ETC.

THE island of Newfoundland is situated nearer to Europe than any of the islands, or any part of the continent, of America; and lies within the latitudes of $46^{\circ} 40'$ and $51^{\circ} 37' N.$, and the longitudes of $52^{\circ} 25'$ and $59^{\circ} 15' W.$

It approaches to a triangular form, and is broken and indented with broad and deep bays, innumerable harbours, coves, lakes, and rivers. Its configuration is wild and rugged, and its aspect from the sea far from prepossessing, which was probably the cause of unfavourable opinions respecting its settlement having been so generally entertained.

The interior of this large island remained unexplored, from its discovery, until within the last six or seven years. Before then, only the harbours, and some few places a little distance from the shore, were



known to Europeans. The Indians alone were well acquainted with the inland parts. Some furriers, who cared little for the natural condition of the country, and who were too ignorant to describe it, have occasionally, during winter, proceeded on the ice a considerable distance up the rivers in quest of beavers and other wild animals. From these men nothing satisfactory could be ascertained or expected ; and their character was, in other respects, too suspicious to place any reliance on what they stated, particularly in regard to the Red Indians ; it being well known that they shot these unfortunate savages with as much indifference as if they were red foxes.

Mr. Cormack, in 1822, accompanied by Indians, accomplished a journey across the island, from Trinity Bay to St. George's Bay. This was a most arduous and perilous undertaking, when the rugged, broken configuration of the country is considered. He proceeded from Random Island, in Smith's Sound, Trinity Bay, early in September, accompanied by one Mic-mac Indian, and directed his course across the country by a pocket compass. The greatest obstacles to his travelling were the innumerable lakes. To walk round them was, indeed, a task of no ordinary difficulty. Being the first European who discovered them, he adopted the usual right of giving them names ; many of which he styled after those of his friends. He engaged another Indian, about the centre of the island, to accompany him ; and, after enduring much fatigue, and often a precarious subsistence, having to depend altogether for food on their success in shooting wild animals, he reached St. George's Bay, on the west side of Newfoundland, in the month of November. Mr. Cormack found the interior of the island much

more broken up with water than is generally supposed ; — lakes, rocks, marshes, and scrubby trees, forming its general character. In its geological aspect, granite everywhere prevailed ; and the exceptions that presented themselves were, porphyry, quartz, gneiss, serpentine, sienite, basalts, mica-slate, clay-slate, and secondary sandstone. He met with many indications of iron, and found coal. He crossed several ridges of beautiful serpentine, about the centre of the country, near the lake which he called Jameson's Lake, and Jameson Mountains, and at Serpentine Lake. The eastern half of the interior is generally a low picturesque country, traversed by hills and lake, and the whole diversified with trees of humble growth. The country to the westward he found rugged and mountainous, with little wood, until within a few miles of the western coast. The mountains are not generally in ridges, each seeming to have its own particular base.

There are large tracts of peat marsh in the interior, producing a strong wiry grass, and which appear to have been formerly wooded, as Mr. Cormack discovered trunks and roots of much larger trees under the surface than any now growing in Newfoundland. Spruce, birch, and larch, compose the woods. Pine is seldom met with, and that generally of a small growth. Mountain ashes, "few and far between," occur.

Whortleberry bushes, and *wisha-capuca* (Indian tea), predominate on the high unwooded grounds. Mr. Cormack considers the best soil to be along the rivers, and at the head of the bays ; and he concludes that both soil and climate are unfavourable to the raising of grain, but well adapted for grazing, and the

cultivation of potatoes and other green crops. Eight miles up Great Barrisais River, St. George's Bay, he discovered excellent coal, some salt springs, and a sulphurous spring. He found there, also, gypsum and red ochre in abundance.

In the interior, he observed vast herds of deer of the cariboo kind, which resort to the woods in winter, and in summer come out into the plains and barren grounds. Their flesh forms nearly the whole food of the Mic-mac Indians. Beavers are now much more scarce than formerly. Foxes are still numerous along the rivers and sea-coast. The Mic-mac Indians proceed by different routes into the interior; they go by East Bay River, in their birch-bark canoes, as far as Serpentine Lake; and from thence proceed from lake to lake in small basket or wicker-work canoes, covered with skins, resembling those said to have been used by the ancient Britons. When hunting beavers, the Mic-mac Indians allow a periodical term of three years to intervene from the time of disturbing a particular rendezvous until they again visit it. Mr. Cormack thinks that paths might, without much difficulty, be made across the interior, to permit horses and cattle to pass along during summer.

Although Newfoundland was the first discovered of all the British colonies, yet it is, in reality, the most imperfectly known in Great Britain. It has been described as thickly wooded, which is not the case: trees of any size are only found near the shores of the bays, and along the rivers. On the Atlantic coast, there is but little wood of any value, except for fuel, and the building of small boats.

In the northern parts of the island, where the most

extensive forests abounded, fires have destroyed the largest trees, which have been succeeded by those of a different and smaller species ; so that, although the island has probably a sufficient quantity of wood growing on it for its own use, yet it certainly cannot afford to export any, nor can it supply, as has been asserted, large masts for the navy.

The climate has generally been misrepresented, and declared to be unusually severe, humid, and disagreeable. On the east and south coasts, when the winds blow from the sea, humidity certainly prevails, and during winter the cold is severe.

The harbours on the Atlantic shore are not so long frozen over as the most southerly of those within the Gulf of St. Lawrence. On the west coast, from Cape Ray north, and in the interior, the atmosphere is generally clear, and the climate is much the same as that of the district of Gaspé, in Lower Canada. There is no country where the inhabitants enjoy better health, or where, notwithstanding the fatigue and hardships to which a fisherman's life is subjected, more of them attain to longevity.*

During the summer months, the days and nights are, with few exceptions, very pleasant. The tem-

* There was in 1829, and probably is still, living on the island of Marasheen, Placentia Bay, a man named Martin Galten, more than 100 years old, in excellent health, and who caught that year, in a boat with his brother, ninety quintals of cod-fish. He piloted Captain Cook into Placentia Bay about seventy years ago. There are many extraordinary instances of longevity in the same place ; among whom, Nancy Tibeau, the mother of four living generations ; and a Mrs. Tait, who died in 1819, was 125 years old, and was along with her third husband at the siege of Quebec. The above information was given me by a very intelligent gentleman residing at Marasheen.

perature of the atmosphere is, indeed, frequently hot about mid-day, and often oppressively so ; but in the mornings and evenings, and at night, exceedingly agreeable.

As there are nearly five degrees of latitude between the southern and northern points of Newfoundland, it follows that there is considerable difference in the duration and severity of winter. The climate of Conception Bay may probably be considered as possessing the mean temperature of the island. The most disagreeable periods are the setting in and breaking up of winter, and especially at the time when the large fields of ice, formed in the hyperborean regions, are carried along the coast by the northerly winds and currents.

In comparing Newfoundland with any other country, I consider that the western Highlands of Scotland bear a striking resemblance to many parts of it ; and there is nothing that the latter will produce, but what will grow, with the same care and cultivation, in the former. The winters of Newfoundland are, it is true, colder ; but in summer and autumn the weather is, for two or three months, so hot, as to bring many fruits to perfection that will not ripen in Scotland.

The sea-coast, from Fortune Bay to Cape Ray, is everywhere indented, like the south-east coast of Nova Scotia, which it resembles, with harbours ; but the lands, especially near the sea, are rocky, thinly wooded, and with scarcely any soil fit for cultivation. On the west coast, particularly at St. George's Bay, where there is a settlement, there are tracts of excellent land, with deep and fertile soils, and covered in many places with heavy timber. Coal, limestone,

and gypsum, abound in great plenty in this part of the island.

At the heads of the bays, and along the rivers, there are many tracts of land formed of deposits washed from the hills; the soil of which tracts is of much the same quality as that of the savannas in the interior of America. These lands, should the increasing population render it desirable, might be converted into excellent meadows; and if drained, to carry off the water which covers them after the snows dissolve, they would yield good barley, oats, &c. The rich pasturage which the island affords adapts it, in an eminent degree, to the breeding and raising of cattle and sheep; and I believe that it might produce a sufficient quantity of beef to supply its fisheries.

From the earliest period of the settlement of Newfoundland down to the present time, objections have been made, and obstacles have been raised, in order to discourage its cultivation. That the fisheries of this colony constitute its political and commercial value and importance, no one acquainted with it can deny. The depressed state of its fisheries, ever since the French and Americans obtained a participation in this great branch of our commerce, has placed Newfoundland in a position different from that which previously distinguished it. The sudden change was such, that there is little hazard in asserting, that, were it not for the auxiliary support which the inhabitants derived from the cultivation of the soil, they could not have existed by the production of the fisheries alone; and, as they otherwise would have had to remove to the neighbouring colonies, or to the United States, the probable consequence would be,

that the Americans and French would before this have enjoyed the benefit of expelling us altogether from supplying foreign markets with fish.

The natural productions of Newfoundland are, trees of the fir tribe, poplars, birches, a few maple-trees, wild cherry-trees, and a great variety of shrubs ; blueberries and cranberries grow in great abundance ; also small red strawberries, and several other kinds of wild fruit. English cherries, black, red, and white currants, gooseberries, &c., ripen in perfection. Natural grasses grow, particularly in the plains, all over the country. The wild animals are bears, deer, wolves, foxes, beavers, otters, martens, minks, musk-rats, hares, and all the aquatic and land birds common to the northern parts of America. Mosquitoes are in many parts numerous and troublesome ; and a great variety of other insects are common.

The Newfoundland dog is a celebrated and useful animal, well known. These dogs are remarkably docile and obedient to their masters ; they are very serviceable in all the fishing plantations ; and are yoked in pairs, and used to haul the winter fuel home. They are gentle, faithful, good-natured, and ever friendly to man, at whose command they will leap into the water from the highest precipice, and in the coldest weather. They are remarkably voracious, but can endure (like the aborigines of the country) hunger for a great length of time ; and they are usually fed upon the worst of salted fish. The true breed has become scarce, and difficult to be met with. They grow to a greater size than an English mastiff, have a fine close fur, and the colour is of various kinds ; but black, which is most approved of, prevails. The smooth short-haired dog, so

much admired in England as a Newfoundland dog, though an useful and sagacious animal, and nearly as hardy and fond of the water, is a cross breed. It, however, seems to inherit all the virtues of the true kind. A Newfoundland dog will, if properly domesticated and trained, defend his master, growl when another person speaks roughly to him, and in no instance of danger leave him. This animal, in a wild state, hunts in packs, and is then ferocious, and in its habits similar to the wolf. They are fond of children, and much attached to the members of the house to which they belong; but frequently cherish a surly antipathy to strangers, or to those who wantonly fling sticks or stones at them. They will neither attack nor fight a dog of inferior size, but growl at snarling curs, and throw them aside. They suffer cats to play with, and even to lie and sleep on the top of them. They are great enemies to sheep, which they never hesitate to kill, but partake only of the blood. When hungry, they will not scruple to steal a fowl, salmon, or piece of meat; yet they will watch a carcass of beef or mutton belonging to their masters, keep off other dogs, and never touch it themselves.

They fight courageously with dogs of their own size and strength, and will start immediately on hearing other dogs fight, to restore peace among them. So sagacious, indeed, are these animals, that they only seem to want the faculty of speech to make them fully understood; and they are capable of being trained to all the purposes for which almost every other variety of the canine species are used.

CHAP. II.

SKETCH OF ITS HISTORY.

NEWFOUNDLAND, although occupying no distinguished place in the history of the New World, has, notwithstanding, at least for two centuries and a half after its discovery by Cabot in 1479, been of more mighty importance to Great Britain than any other colony ; and it is doubtful if the British Empire could have risen to its great and superior rank among the nations of the earth, if any other power had held the possession of Newfoundland ; its fishery having ever since its commencement furnished our navy with a great proportion of its hardy and brave sailors.

France made a claim to Newfoundland, under pretence of priority of discovery ; alleging, that the fishermen of Biscay frequented the banks even before the first voyage of Columbus, and that Verazani afterwards discovered it sooner than England. These pretensions, however, could not constitute a right in France, as Cabot, by the most undoubted authority, discovered and landed on the coast several years before, and took possession of this island, which he named Baccalaos*, and on the island of St. John (now Prince Edward Island) : from the latter he carried

* The name by which the natives called cod-fish, which were so abundant as to induce Cabot to give this name to the country.

away three natives to England. He also discovered the continent of Norembegua, the ancient name of all that part of America situated between the Gulf of St. Lawrence and Virginia. *

The first attempt made by the English to form a settlement in Newfoundland, was in the latter part of the reign of Henry VIII., at the recommendation of Messrs. Elliot and Thom, who traded there with leave from the crown; and to such advantage, that an expedition was made, at the expense of a Mr. Hare, a merchant of eminence, and his friends, for the purpose of planting Newfoundland.

From their ignorance of the nature of the country they failed in their attempt, and were reduced to great wretchedness through famine and fatigue. From this period until 1579, all thoughts of prosecuting the discovery and settlement of Newfoundland were relinquished, although we had then fifteen ships engaged in its fisheries. About this time, Captain Whitburn, who was employed by a merchant of Southampton, in a ship of three hundred tons, put into Trinity Bay, where he was so successful, that, with a full cargo of fish, &c., he cleared the expenses of the voyage. He says, "we saw in 1610 a mermaid in St. John's harbour," and in 1612, "we saw Easton the arch-pirate, with ten sail of good vessels, well furnished and very rich;" "many pirates frequented the coast at this time." He afterwards repeated the voyage, formed an acquaintance with the natives, and, during his residence, Sir Humphrey Gilbert arrived in Newfoundland with three ships

* Vide Hackluyt's Voyages. De Thou. Herrera, Hist. Gen. Amer. Raynal.

(some say five) and 250 men, with a commission from Queen Elizabeth to take possession of the island for the crown. On the 5th August, 1583, he took formal possession in the name of his sovereign, and received the acknowledged obedience of the crews of thirty-six vessels of different nations, then in the harbour of St. John's.

He then promulgated some laws for the government of the colony, and levied contributions of provisions on the ships there. He left Newfoundland on the 20th August with three ships, one of which was lost on the Isle of Sables ; and on returning homeward, the ship which he commanded foundered during a storm, and all on board perished. He is described as a gentleman of the most amiable character, engaging manners, courage, wisdom, and learning, and also much esteemed by Queen Elizabeth. He may justly be considered the parent of English colonies. After this we find no mention of Newfoundland until 1585, when a voyage was made there by Sir Bernard Drake, who claimed its sovereignty and fishery in the name of Queen Elizabeth, and seized upon several Portuguese ships laden with fish, oil, and furs.

The most active spirit of discovery and commercial enterprise was at this period beginning to rouse the people of England ; but the war with Spain and the terror of the Grand Armada checked, although it did not subdue, the ardour of the most sanguine of those who were bent on planting newly-discovered countries ; and fifteen years passed away before another voyage was made to Newfoundland. The spirit of trade and discovery was again revived in England by Mr. Guy, an intelligent merchant of Bristol, who

wrote several judicious treatises on colonisation and commerce ; and, from the arguments of this gentleman, several persons of distinction applied to James I. for that part of Newfoundland lying between the Capes of St. Mary and Bonavista, which they obtained in 1610, under the designation of "The Treasurer and Company of Adventurers and Planters of the Cities of London and Bristol, for the Colony of Newfoundland." This patent was granted to the Earl of Northampton, the Lord Chief Baron Tanfield, Sir John Doddridge, Lord Chancellor Bacon, Lord Verulam, &c., and was in substance, "That whereas divers of his Majesty's subjects were desirous to plant in the southern and eastern parts of Newfoundland, where the subjects of this realm have, for upwards of fifty years past, been used annually, in no small numbers, to resort to fish, intending thereby to secure the trade of fishing to our subjects for ever ; as also to make some advantage of the lands thereof, which hitherto have remained unprofitable ; wherefore, his Majesty now grants to Henry, Earl of Northampton, (and forty-four persons herein named,) their heirs and assigns, to be a corporation with perpetual succession, &c., by the name of the Treasurer and Company of Adventurers and Planters of the Cities of London and Bristol, for the Colony and Plantation in Newfoundland, from north latitude 46° to 52° ; together with the seas and islands lying within ten leagues of the coast ; and all mines, &c., saving to all his Majesty's subjects the liberty of fishing there," &c.

Mr. Guy went to Newfoundland as conductor of the first colony, which he settled in Conception Bay, and remained there two years ; during which time

he contracted, by his courteous and humane conduct, a friendship with the natives. He left behind him some of his people, to form the foundation of a colony; but, as the fishery was the main object of the English, the planting of Newfoundland was not attended to.*

In 1614, Captain Whitburn, who had made several fishing voyages, carried with him this year a commission from the Admiralty to empanel juries, and investigate upon oath divers abuses and disorders committed amongst the fishermen on the coast. By this commission he held, immediately on his arrival, a court of admiralty, where complaints were received from an hundred and seventy masters of vessels, of injuries committed, variously affecting their trade and navigation.

In 1616, Doctor William Vaughan, who purchased from the patentees a part of the country included in their patent, settled a small colony of his countrymen, from Wales, in the southernmost part of the island, (which he named Cambriol,) now called Little Britain. He appointed Whitburn governor; and his scheme was for the fishery of Newfoundland to go hand and hand with his plantation.†

In 1621, Sir George Calvert, afterwards Lord Baltimore, obtained a grant from King James of that part of Newfoundland situated between the Bay of Bulls and Cape St. Mary's, in order that he might enjoy that free exercise of his religion (being a Catholic) which was denied him in his own country, by the spirit of intolerance which drove the Puritans to

* Vessels of not more than thirty-five tons made voyages to Newfoundland about this time.

† Anderson on Commerce, vol. i. p. 495.

New England. How it was managed to grant this property to Sir George Calvert, without invading the right of the company, of which it certainly formed a part, is not accounted for.

Sir George, who embarked his fortune in this adventure, sent Captain Edward Wynne, who held the commission of governor, before him, with a small colony, and in the meanwhile engaged all the interest of his own friends in securing the success of his plan. Ferryland, the place where Wynne settled, was judiciously chosen. He built the largest house ever erected on the island, with granaries, storehouses, &c., and was, in the following year, reinforced by a number of settlers, with necessary implements, stores, &c. He also erected a salt-work, which was brought to considerable perfection; and the colony was soon after described, and with truth too, to be in a very flourishing condition; and so delighted was the proprietor, now created Lord Baltimore, with the prosperity of the colony, that he emigrated there with his family, built a handsome and commodious house and a strong fort at Ferryland, and resided many years on the island.

About the same time, Lord Falkland, then Lord Lieutenant, sent a colony from Ireland to Newfoundland; but Lord Baltimore's departure soon after for England, to obtain a grant for that part of the country called Maryland, prevented the growing prosperity of his colony, which he called Avalon*, but

* This was the ancient name of a place in Somersetshire on which Glastonbury now stands, and said to be the spot where Christianity was first preached in Britain. Lord Baltimore, with the idea that his province was the place in America where Christianity was first introduced, named it Avalon.

which, however, he still retained, and governed by his deputies.

In the course of about twenty years after Lord Baltimore planted Ferryland, about three hundred and fifty families were settled in fifteen or sixteen parts of the island ; and a more decided interest in its affairs was then taken than at any former period. This led, on the part of the inhabitants, to apply for some civil magistrates, to decide matters of dispute or disorder among them ; but the measure was strenuously opposed by the merchants and shipowners in England concerned in the trade, who petitioned the Privy Council against the appointment of any governor to manage the affairs of Newfoundland, and the prayer of this petition was absurdly enough granted.

In 1674, however, farther application, by petition to the king, was made for a governor ; and the petition being referred to the Lords of Trade and Plantations, their lordships proposed that all plantations in Newfoundland should be discouraged, and that the commander of the convoys should compel the inhabitants to depart from the island, by putting in execution one of the conditions of the western charter. His Majesty was induced to approve of this report ; and, under its sanction, the most cruel and wanton acts were committed on the inhabitants ; their houses were burnt, and a variety of severe and arbitrary measures resorted to for the purpose of driving them from the country.

The extent to which the cruelties committed on the inhabitants had been carried, induced Sir John Berry, the commander of the convoy, about this time to represent to government the policy of co-

lonising Newfoundland. His advice, however, was not attended to.

In 1676, on the representation of John Downing, a resident inhabitant, his Majesty directed that none of the settlers should be disturbed. But, in the following year, in pursuance of an order in council that had been made on the petition of the western adventurers, the Committee of Trade, &c., reported, that, notwithstanding a clause in the western charter, prohibiting the transport to Newfoundland of any persons but such as were of the ship's company, the magistrates of the western ports did permit passengers and private boat-keepers to transport themselves thither, to the injury of the fishery; and they were of opinion that the abuse might hereafter be prevented by those magistrates, "*the vice-admirals*;" and also by the officers of customs.

A petition, on the part of the inhabitants of Newfoundland, soon followed this representation; and in order to investigate the matter fully, it was ordered that the adventurers and planters should each be heard by their counsel. The question was thus seriously argued, and afterwards referred, as formerly, to the Committee of Trade; but no report seems to have been made on this occasion, and no steps for regulating the settlement or fishery of Newfoundland were adopted, until the Board of Trade, instituted in January 1697, took up the subject, among others that came under their province. They made a report, which, however, applied more to the defence of the island than to its civil regulations, and went no farther than to express an opinion, that a moderate number of planters, not exceeding one thousand, were useful in the construction of boats, stages, and other

necessaries for the fisheries. The English, in 1692, made a feeble unsuccessful attempt to take Placentia, then commanded by the Baron La Hontan, from France; and in 1696, England had the mortification to know that France took from us all our settlements in Newfoundland, except Bonavista and Carbonier.

The English, however, soon repossessed themselves of St. John's, and all the other places taken by France. But, at this period, that nation began to evince a spirit of determination to become mistress of all America, and the fisheries of Newfoundland, as fully appears by the celebrated marine ordinance of Louis XIV., drawn up under the great Colbert, were not the least objects of her ambition.

In 1690, the statue 10 & 11 William and Mary, cap. 25., entitled, "An Act to encourage the trade of Newfoundland," passed; but, as the substance of this act appears to embody the policy of former times, it tended to no purpose other than to legalise misrule, and the capricious will of ignorant men, accidentally empowered by it with authority.

These persons were distinguished by the dignified titles, or rather nicknames, of *admirals*, *vice-admirals*, and *rear-admirals*. The master of the first fishing-vessel that arrived *was the admiral*; the next, *vice-admiral*; and the third, *rear-admiral*, in the harbours they frequented. Few of these men could *write their own names*; and from this circumstance alone the absurdity of investing them with power must be apparent.

The report made in 1701 by Mr. George Larkin, who went to the American settlements to make observations for the information of government, contains

many remarks that deserve attention. He found Newfoundland in a very disorderly and confused condition. The woods were wantonly destroyed by rinding the trees. The New England men sold their commodities cheap, in general; but constrained the purchasers to take certain quantities of rum, which the inhabitants sold to the fishermen, and which tempted them to remain on the island, and leave their families in England, a burden upon the parish. The inhabitants also sold rum to their servants, who got into debt, and were forced to hire themselves in payment, so that one month's profuse living often left them in bondage for a year.*

The fishermen from New England were accustomed to inveigle away many of the seamen and servants, with promises of high wages; but these men were generally disappointed, and in the end became pirates. The inhabitants he represents as a profuse sort of people, who cared not at what rate they got into debt; and that, as the act of King William gave the planters a title, it was much to be regretted that proper regulations were not made for their government, more particularly as the island, from its having no civil power, was then become a sanctuary for people who failed in England.

Upon complaints being made to the commander on the station, it had been customary for him to send his lieutenants to the different harbours to decide disputes between masters of fishing vessels and the planters, and between them again and their servants; but upon such occasions, Mr. Larkin alleges those matters were

* This has been common in all the British American colonies, and prevails to this day.

conducted in the most corrupt manner. He that made a present of most quintals of fish was certain to have a judgment in his favour. Even the commanders themselves were said to be, in this respect, faulty. After the fishing season was over, masters beat their servants, and servants their masters.

The war with France in 1702 — as the French, at that period, were masters of Canada, Cape Breton, &c., and were also established in Newfoundland, at Placentia — disturbed the fisheries and other affairs of Newfoundland; and in 1708, the French took St. John's, and some places in Conception Bay, which they held until the peace of Utrecht.

In 1708 the House of Commons addressed Queen Anne on the subject of the better execution of laws in Newfoundland, when it was, as usual, referred to the Board of Trade, which only went so far as to get the opinion of the Attorney-General on the statute of King William.

Two years after, fifteen very useful regulations were agreed upon at St. John's, for the better discipline and good order of the people, and for correcting irregularities contrary to good laws and acts of Parliament. These regulations, or bye-laws, were debated and resolved on at courts, or meetings, held at St. John's; where were present, and had all a voice, a mixed assemblage of merchants, masters of merchant-ships, and planters. This anomalous assembly formed, at the time, a kind of public body, exercising executive, judicial, and legislative power.

By the treaty of Utrecht, in 1713, Placentia, and all other parts of Newfoundland occupied by the French, were, in full sovereignty, ceded to Great Britain;

the French, however, retaining a license to come and go during the fishing season.

The Guipuscoans were also, in an ambiguous manner, acknowledged to have a claim, as a matter of right, to a participation in the fishery; which the Board of Trade declared afterwards, in 1718, to be inadmissible.

Government about this time, as well as the merchants, began to direct their attention to the trade of the island with more spirit than they had hitherto shown. A Captain Taverner was commissioned to survey its coasts; a lieutenant-governor was appointed to command the fort at Placentia, and a ship of war kept cruising round the island, to keep the French at their limits.

In 1729 it was concluded, principally through the representation of Lord Vere Beauclerk, the commander on the station, to establish some permanent government, which ended, as Mr. Reeves observes, in the appointment, "not of a person skilled in the law," as had been proposed, but of Captain Henry Osborne, commander of his majesty's ship the *Squirrel*. Lord Vere Beauclerk, who set sail for Newfoundland with the governor, in the summer of this year, received a box, containing eleven sets of Shaw's *Practical Justice of the Peace*, being one for each of the following places, which were respectively impressed on the covers in gold letters: "Placentia, St. John's, Carbonier, Bay of Bulls, Ferryland, Trepassé, Bay de Verd, Trinity Bay, Bonavista, and Old Parlekin, in Newfoundland;" together with thirteen copies of the statute of King William, and the acts relating to the navigation and trade of the kingdoms.

The commission delivered to Captain Osborne revoked so much of the commission to the governor of Nova Scotia as related to Newfoundland; gave him, "authority to appoint a sheriff, erect a court-house and prison, and administer oaths to justices of the peace, and other officers whom he may appoint under him, for the better administration of justice, and keeping the peace of the island."

The petty jealousies and interests of the fishing admirals, merchants, and planters, prevented Osborne and his successors, for a period of twenty years, from carrying into execution the objects and regulations contained in their commissions and instructions.

In the commission of the peace for the island, the justices were restrained from proceeding in cases of doubt or difficulty — such as robberies, murders, felonies, and all capital offences. From this restriction a subject of considerable difficulty and inconvenience arose, as persons who had committed capital felonies could only be tried in England; and, in 1751, a commission was issued to Captain William Francis Drake, empowering him to appoint commissioners of oyer and terminer for the trial of felons at Newfoundland.

In 1742, in consequence of the number of captured vessels brought into St. John's, a court of Vice-Admiralty was established.

A claim was made, in 1754, by Lord Baltimore, to that part of the island originally granted to his ancestor, and named by him "the Province of Avalon." This claim was declared inadmissible by the Board of Trade, agreeably to the opinion of the law officers; and it has since then been relinquished.

In June 1762, the French took St. John's, Trinity,

and Carbonier, and retained them until September following, when they were retaken, with some difficulty, by the forces sent from Halifax, under Lord Colville and Sir Jeffrey Amherst.

The peace of 1763, by which we acquired all the French possessions in North America, opened a most favourable opportunity for extending the fishery, to the decided advantage of these kingdoms; and the Board of Trade, in bringing the subject under their consideration, applied for information to the towns in the west of England, as well as to Glasgow, Belfast, Cork, and Waterford, which had for some time been engaged in the trade. In the year following, a collector and comptroller of the customs were established at St. John's. This measure, and the consequent introduction of the navigation laws, were complained of by the merchants, in the same way as the appointing commissioners of the peace, and ofoyer and terminer.

The French, always, but now more than ever, anxious about their fishery, insisted on their having a right to the western coast, for the purpose of fishing, as far south as Cape Ray; maintaining that it properly was "Point Riche," mentioned in the treaty of Utrecht. This claim embraced nearly two hundred miles of the west coast of Newfoundland more than they had a right to by treaty; and their authority being founded only on an old map of Hermann Moll, was shown, with great accuracy, by the Board of Trade, to be altogether inadmissible. The coast of Labrador was in 1763 separated from Canada, and annexed to the government of Newfoundland. This was a very judicious measure; but, as the chief object of those who at that time frequented Labrador,

was the seal-fishery, the Board of Trade, at the recommendation principally of Sir Hugh Palliser, considered it unwise policy to separate Labrador from the jurisdiction of Canada ; and accordingly recommended his majesty to re-annex it. This was effected in 1774 *, and in the following year an act † was passed, the spirit of which was to defend and support the ship fishery carried on from England.

Its principal regulations were, that the privilege of drying fish on the shores should be limited to his majesty's subjects arriving at Newfoundland from Great Britain and Ireland, or any of the British dominions in Europe. This law set at rest all that had been agitated in favour of the resident colonists.

It must, at the same time, be acknowledged, that its provisions for upholding the ship fishery, for the purpose of making it a nursery for training seamen, were wise and judicious ; and making the fish and oil liable for the payment of wages due to the people employed in and about the fisheries, was a very proper regulation. It extended, also, a bounty to the Newfoundland bank fishing ; and British ships might by it occupy any part of the coasts of Labrador, as well as Newfoundland, without restraint as to days or hours of working.

L'Abbé Raynal observes, " that the English fishing admirals carried their insolence and superiority so far at this time, as to forbid the French fishermen to fish for cod on Sunday, upon the pretence that their own abstained from catching on that day."

The American revolutionary war affected, in a

* 14 Geo. III. cap. 83., commonly called the Quebec Act.

† 15 Geo. III. cap. 31.

very injurious degree, the affairs of Newfoundland. A bill was passed in Parliament, prohibiting the people of New England from fishing at Newfoundland.* This measure was loudly and strongly opposed by the merchants of London. The reasons alleged by ministers were, "that as the colonies had entered into an agreement not to trade with Britain, we were entitled to prevent them trading with any other country. Their charter restricted them to the Act of Navigation: the relaxations from it were favours to which, by their disobedience, they had no farther interest."

"The Newfoundland fisheries were the ancient property of Great Britain, and disposable, therefore, at her will and discretion; it was no more than just to deprive rebels of them." To this it was contended, that it was beneath the character of a civilised people to molest poor fishermen, or to deprive the wretched inhabitants of a sea-coast of their food; and that the fisheries being also the medium through which they settled their accounts with Britain, the cutting them off from this resource would only tend to put a stop to their remittances to England.

The fishermen also would, by this measure, be driven into the immediate service of rebellion. They would man privateers, and would accelerate the levies of troops the colonies were making; and, being hardy and robust men, would prove the best recruits that could be found.† All this unfortunately happened.

From the evidence brought in support of their petition by the London merchants, it appears, that

* 15 Geo. III. cap. 10.

† Andrews's History of the American War, vol. i. p. 339.

the four New England provinces employed, in the fisheries of Newfoundland and the banks alone, about 48,000 tons of shipping, and from 6000 to 7000 seamen; and that ten years before, since which time the fisheries had greatly increased, the produce of the fisheries in foreign markets amounted to 35,000%. What rendered them particularly valuable was, that all the materials used in them (the salt for curing, and the timber for building the vessels, excepted) were purchased in Britain; and that the net proceeds were remitted in payment.

But the merchants of Poole, and other places engaged in the Newfoundland fishery, presented a second petition, in direct opposition to that of London. It represented, that the bill against the New England fishermen would not prove detrimental to the trade of Britain, which was fully able, with proper exertions, to supply the demands of foreign markets; that the British Newfoundland fishery bred a great number of hardy seamen, peculiarly fit for the service of the navy; whereas the New England seamen were, by act of Parliament, exempt from being pressed: that the fishing from Britain to Newfoundland employed about 400 ships, amounting to 360,000 tons, and 2000 shallows of 20,000 tons, navigated by 20,000 seamen; and that 60,000 quintals of fish were taken every season, the returns of which were annually worth, on a moderate computation, 500,000%.*

* In 1795, 22,000 seamen engaged in the Newfoundland trade,		
and 400 ships, 38,000 tons, valued at 8 <i>l</i> .	-	- £304,000
Caught and cured 600,000 quintals fish, at 18 <i>s</i> .	-	- 540,000
37,000 trail <i>s</i> salmon, at 40 <i>s</i> .	-	- 74,000

Carry forward - £918,000

The New England colonies, in return, resorted to all the means in their power to distress Britain in her American concerns; and for this purpose strictly prohibited the supplying of the British fishery on the banks of Newfoundland with any provisions whatsoever.

This was a proceeding wholly unexpected in England. The ships fitted out for that fishery, on arriving at Newfoundland, found their operations arrested for want of provisions; and not only the crews of the ships, but those who were settled in the harbours, were in imminent danger of perishing by famine. Instead of prosecuting the fishing business they came on, the ships were constrained to make the best of their way to England and other places for provisions.

In addition to this obstruction to the fisheries, natural causes co-operated. During the fishing season, a storm, more terrible than was ever known in these latitudes, arose, attended with circumstances unusually dreadful and destructive. The sea, according to various accounts, rose from twenty to thirty feet above its ordinary level, and so suddenly, that no time was given to prepare against its effects. Some ships foundered with their whole crews; and more than seven hundred fishing crafts perished, with a

	Brought forward	-	£918,000
1,000 barrels herrings, at 15s.	-	-	750
5,000 seal-skins, at 4s.	-	-	1,000
3,300 tons oil, at 28 <i>l</i> .	-	-	92,400
2,000 small boats, at 3 <i>l</i> .	-	-	6,000
Goods remaining in stores	-	-	300,000

Value of property invested in this trade - £1,318,150

great majority of the people in them. The sea broke in upon the lands where fish-houses, flakes, &c., were erected, and occasioned vast loss and destruction.

By the third article of the treaty of peace signed at Paris in 1783, it was agreed that the people of the United States should enjoy, unmolested, the right to take fish on the banks of Newfoundland, and in the Gulf of St. Lawrence, and also at all other places in the sea where they previously used to fish, and on the coast of Newfoundland; but not to cure their fish on that island. It was also agreed, that provisions might be imported to the British colonies in British bottoms. This was strongly opposed by the western merchants, but unsuccessfully; and, in 1788, upon the representation of the merchants connected with Canada, it was proposed to bring a bill into Parliament for preventing entirely the supply of bread, flour, and live stock, from the United States: but this intention was abandoned, and the mode of occasional supply continued.

The Board of Trade was abolished in 1782, and, for the last years of its existence, scarcely any thing appears on its records relative to Newfoundland. Matters of trade and plantations were for some years afterwards managed by a committee of council, appointed in 1784.

Hitherto no court of civil jurisdiction had been provided for the colony; and, while the island remained merely a fishery, carried on by vessels from England, the causes of actions were not of great magnitude; but now that the population had increased to considerable numbers, and heavy mercantile dealings were frequent among them, discontent

arose from time to time, that led to the establishment of a new court, by commission to Admiral Milbanke, who was sent out as governor in 1789. But, as heavy complaints were preferred by the merchants, as well as the planters, against the proceedings of this court, an act was passed in 1792, empowering the governor, with the advice of the chief justice, to institute Surrogate Courts * of civil jurisdiction in different parts of the island. The first chief justice was Mr. Reeves, who published an interesting account of Newfoundland, with acts of Parliament relative to its government. He was a man of excellent character, and a sound lawyer. Newfoundland owed much to him ; and it would have been well for that colony if his successors had followed the example of his conduct. Some of them were not only unskilled in the law, but weak or obstinate men, who were influenced by their interests or passions.

Admiral Gambier was appointed to the government in 1802. His administration was mild, and he appears to have been anxious to promote the interests of the colony, and to encourage the education of children born or brought up on the island.

Before the peace of Amiens, a regiment of volunteers was raised in the colony, and then disbanded. On the commencement of hostilities another regiment was embodied, and afterwards attached to the regulars, under the name of " The Newfoundland Regiment of Light Infantry," under the command of Colonel Skinner.

* They were called " floating Surrogates," and had the same jurisdiction as the supreme court ; to which, however, appeals lay for all sums above forty pounds.

The trade of the island was not in the least interrupted by the war, the vessels employed in the fisheries being fully protected by the ships of war on the station ; and the admirals, appointed from time to time to the command of the Newfoundland squadron, administered the government as formerly.

The first newspaper published in the colony, appeared in 1807, under the title of " The Royal Gazette and Newfoundland Advertiser ; " and in 1809, a post-office was established at St. John's.

Surrogate Courts were extended to the coast of Labrador in 1811 ; and those lands known by the appellation of " Ship's Rooms," were ordered to be leased to the highest bidder. Those situated in some of the most convenient places for business along the harbour of St. John's, were always considered a great nuisance, and an impediment in the way of trade.

During the war, Newfoundland prospered, and riches flowed in among the inhabitants ; but the peace of 1814 was attended by a sudden transition in the trade of the colony, from the highest pitch of commercial success to the lowest point of depression. Several houses failed in consequence ; and the inhabitants, not having those resources which an agricultural country affords, were reduced to great misery. The vast destruction of property by fire soon after at St. John's, occasioned also much distress, and drove many of the inhabitants from the island.

Newfoundland has, however, recovered gradually from the deplorable condition it was in from the peace until 1818, which fortunately turned out a most successful year in the seal and cod fisheries.

This year Governor Pickmore died at St. John's,

and his body was carried to England in his majesty's ship *Fly*. He was the first resident governor, and succeeded the naval commanders who administered the government of Newfoundland while on the station during the fishing seasons, but who returned to England on the approach of winter. Sir Charles Hamilton, the first permanent resident governor, was appointed to the administration of the affairs of the colony this year. He was succeeded by the present governor, Sir Thomas Cochrane, a son of Admiral Sir A. Cochrane, and a captain in the royal navy.

By a new commission, dated Downing-street, the 27th of July, 1832, to Sir Thomas Cochrane, and by the Royal instructions to him as governor, a representative constitution, similar to that of Nova Scotia, hereafter described, is given to Newfoundland.

CHAP. III.

GOVERNMENT, AND ADMINISTRATION OF JUSTICE. — LAWS. —
EXPENSES OF THE COLONY. — VALUE OF ITS COMMERCE, ETC.

THE power of the governor of Newfoundland is now the same as that of the governors of the other colonies. He appoints justices of the peace, suspends at pleasure all officers who hold their commissions from the crown, grants marriage licenses, has the supreme command of the regular forces and the militia, and is also vice-admiral of Newfoundland and Labrador.

The propriety of granting the colony a legislative government, was for some years a subject of consideration, attended with some difficulty and perplexity. The resident inhabitants were, with few exceptions, in favour of the measure; while the principal persons in connection with Newfoundland, residing in England, considered that a legislative assembly would be injurious to the fisheries, and to the best interests of the colony; that it would be inconvenient for members from the out harbours to come to, and remain at St. John's, during the sitting of an assembly; that efficient members, who were permanent residents, could not be found in the island; and, consequently, that giving it a representative constitution would be premature and unnecessary.

There was no doubt but that the internal improvement of the colony would be promoted, and that

matters of local utility would be better regulated under a legislative government. The question was, whether the great business of the colony, that which makes it important to Great Britain—the fisheries, would also, at the same time, prosper; and, whether directing the attention of the inhabitants to the cultivation of the soil, would not be injurious to the fisheries. From all I have observed in Nova Scotia, and in the district of Gaspé, I certainly believe that Newfoundland is not only quite as much entitled to a legislative government as the other colonies, but that the fisheries will in consequence be rather supported than depressed.

The supreme court of judicature, as now constituted, has a chief justice and two assistant justices. It has criminal and civil jurisdiction, and is also a court of record. It holds plea of all crimes and misdemeanors committed within the island of Newfoundland, the coast of Labrador, and dependent islands, agreeably to the laws and practice of England, and the acts of Parliament for regulating judicial proceedings in Newfoundland. It also holds plea for the recovery of debts due by persons residing, or having property in Newfoundland, although such debts should have been contracted in Great Britain, or other parts of his majesty's dominions.

The Court of Vice-Admiralty, held by a judge commissary, has had little to do since the last war. It holds cognisance of maritime causes, and causes of revenue. Appeals lie from it to the High Court of Admiralty in England.

There is a Court of Probate, held by the chief justice and assistant justices, for the probate of wills, and granting letters of administration.



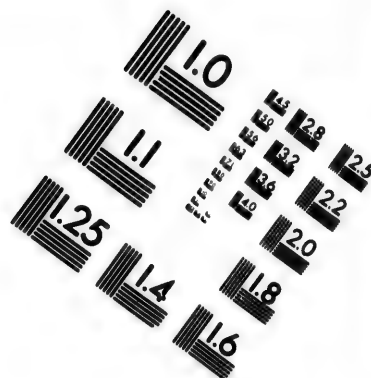
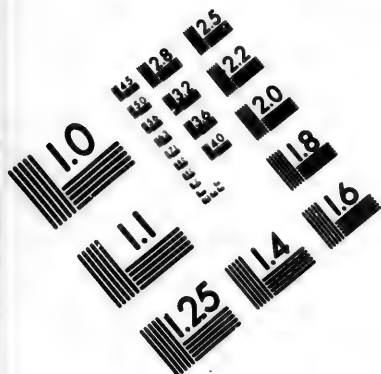
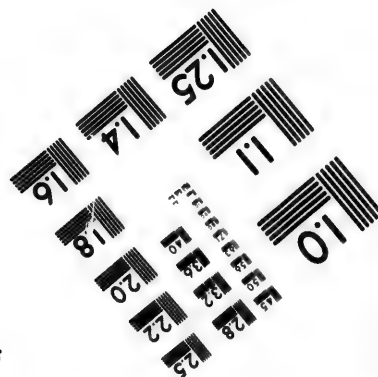
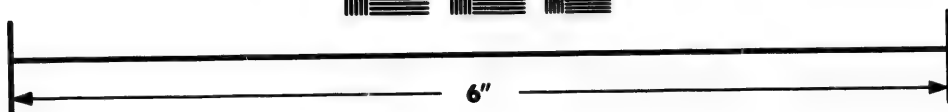
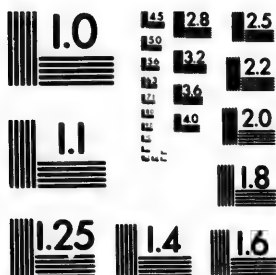


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WEBSTER, N.Y. 14580
(716) 872-4503

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At St. John's, and at most of the out-harbours, where the population renders it necessary, there is a court of session, held by two magistrates, who have the same jurisdiction as in England.

On the issuing of writs of attachment, if it be made to appear, on investigation, that the party is insolvent, the court declares his insolvency, and authorises one or more creditors, chosen by the major part in value of such creditors whose debts amount to 10*l.*, or upwards, to collect the debts and effects of such insolvent, and distribute the same under the directions of the court.

The distribution of the property of insolvents at Newfoundland, is as follows :—In the first place, all wages due to seamen, fishermen, and servants employed during the current season, 20*s.* in the pound ; after which, debts due for all supplies furnished for the current season, 20*s.* in the pound, if the effects of the insolvent will realise as much.

Then, debts contracted within two years claim a preference ; and the remaining assets, if there be any, to be divided rateably among all the other creditors.

A certificate, granted by the court, with the consent of one-half in number and value of the creditors, is a bar to all suits for debts within the jurisdiction of the courts of Newfoundland.

The Surrogate Courts were, from the beginning, considered at once grievous and exceedingly objectionable, as the judges were no other than the commanders or lieutenants of his majesty's ships on the station, whose pursuits and education could not qualify them, however just their intentions might be, for competent expounders of the intricate labyrinth of commercial laws. At the same time, it is but

justice to remark, that the task was by no means agreeable to many of those officers; and, with few exceptions, if they erred, it was not from the influence of fear or interest, but from an ignorance of matters that no one should expect them to understand. But in this way the jurisdiction of Newfoundland was conducted until 1824, when a bill was passed, entitled, "An Act for the better Administration of Justice in Newfoundland, and other Purposes." This act, like all others passed relative to Newfoundland, being experimental, was limited to continue in force only for five years. By the provisions of this act, a chief judge and two assistant judges are appointed, and the island divided into three districts, in each of which a court is held annually.

The regulations of this law are considered by many, both residing in the island, and in connection with the colony in England, as not adapted to Newfoundland. One of the objections is, the salary of the judges, and the expense connected with their travelling, or going and returning by water to and from different parts of the island. Some of the old laws, which were probably necessary at the time they were passed, are still in force, and are considered at present highly objectionable; one in particular, the tendency of which was very clearly explained to me by several gentlemen, for many years residents in the colony. By this law, which is of many years' standing, and which I certainly consider to have been necessary at the time it was enacted, the merchant who furnishes the planters, or fishermen, with supplies in the early part of the season, has a lien on their property, of whatever kind, but only for the whole of that season; and the consequence is, that if the planter or fisherman be so

unfortunate, which very frequently happens, as not to take a sufficient quantity of fish to pay for the supplies, the merchant, as he must lose his claim altogether if he allow it to remain over till the following season, is under the necessity of seizing on all his debtor has, as it would otherwise fall into the hands of the merchant who supplied the same person the ensuing year. If this law were modified, so as to give the merchant a lien only on the fish, oil, fishing-tackle, and whatever else he supplied, and the property that the planter possessed at the commencement of the season to be, in case of need, equally divided among his other creditors, many an honest man would be saved from ruin.

Another evil, of serious consequence to the merchants themselves, arises out of this law. When the planter or fisherman finds, after the middle of the season is passed, that he will not be able to pay for all the supplies he has received, his energy becomes checked, from the conviction that extra industry will be of no benefit to him, so long as he cannot pay the whole.

It is certain that until late years none of the British plantations have been worse governed than Newfoundland, nor in any has more confusion prevailed. By the constitutions granted to all the other colonies, a clearly defined system of jurisdiction was laid down; but the administration of Newfoundland was, in a great measure, an exclusively mercantile or trading government; which, as Adam Smith very justly observes, "is perhaps the very worst of all governments for any country whatever;" and a powerless planter or fisherman never expected, or seldom received justice from the adventurers, or the fishing

admirals, who were their servants. Mr. Reeves, in his History of Newfoundland, states, "that they had been in the habit of seeing that species of wickedness and anarchy ever since Newfoundland was frequented, from father to son; it was favourable to their old impressions, that Newfoundland was theirs, and that all the plantations were to be spoiled and devoured at their pleasure."

The measures adopted, since the appointment of resident governors, for the better administration of the laws, and its present legislative constitution, are sufficient to enable those in authority to manage the affairs of the colony with wisdom, justice, and to promote its general improvement and public welfare.

CHAP. IV.

TRADE.

THIS great branch of British trade, arising altogether out of Newfoundland, is of too much importance to the interests of England to be overlooked. Its value will appear, from the following statement, of more consequence than it is generally understood to be : —

The annual imports of provisions to Newfoundland, taking the average of the last three years, 1830, 1831, and 1832, have been bread stuffs from foreign parts, principally from

Hamburgh - - - 67,812 cwts.

From British dominions, two-thirds of which from Great

Britain - - - 25,712

Cwts. 93,524 at 16s. £74,819 0 0

Flour. — From foreign states direct - - - 19,075

British dominions, half of which foreign, trans-shipped from England - - - 18,477

Barrels 37,552 at 28s. - 52,573 0 0

Pork. — Foreign - - - 11,908

British, — nearly 5-6ths from Great Britain and Ireland 10,686

Barrels 22,594 at 65s. - 73,430 0 0

Carry forward - £200,822 0 0

	Brought forward	-	£200,822	0	0
Butter.— Foreign	-	-	3,119		
British,— 7-8ths from Britain					
and Ireland	-	-	8,487		
	Cwts. 11,606 at 70s.		40,621	0	0
Foreign wines, spirits, and salt	-	-	23,220	0	0
Produce imported direct from the West Indies,					
estimated at	-	-	47,500	0	0
Tea, nearly all from Halifax, Nova Scotia, out of					
the Company's sales	-	-	19,400	0	0
Cattle, agricultural produce, deals, scantling, and					
timber from North American colonies, esti-					
mated at	-	-	32,500	0	0
Manufactured goods from Gt. Britain and Ireland			422,000	0	0
Total average imports	-	-	£786,063	0	0

The whole consumption of British manufactures,					
and the produce of the soil of Great Britain					
and Ireland, averages	-	-	£463,339	0	0

All the provisions we purchase from foreigners can be laid in equally low, with some little encouragement, from Canada. Live stock from the Newfoundland markets, is supplied by Nova Scotia and Prince Edward Island.

The average annual produce exported during the last three years from Newfoundland, consisted of

Cod-fish, 562,500 quintals, at 10s.	-	-	£281,250	0	0
Cod oil, 3260 tons, at 20s.	-	-	65,200	0	0
Seal oil, 5250 tons, at 22s.	-	-	115,500	0	0
Seal skins, 572,140, at 1s.	-	-	28,607	0	0
Salmon, furs, caplin, cod sounds	-	-	24,210	0	0
Herrings and mackerel	-	-	1,650	0	0
Value of produce from Labrador exported direct,					
and brought to Newfoundland for exportation			302,050	0	0
Present annual value of the Newfoundland and					
Labrador fisheries (1832) at the lowest esti-					
mated prices on the spot, exclusive of freight					
or charges	-	-	£818,467	0	0

With the exception of the amount which is paid to foreigners for provisions, wine, and a small quantity of salt, the whole of the above sum eventually finds its way to the United Kingdom, in payment of British manufactures.

In the carrying trade to and from Newfoundland, there are about 410 vessels, the tonnage of which amounts to about 50,000 tons; two thirds of these vessels belong to the United Kingdom; the rest are colonial. Most of these vessels make two voyages; some three, and some four. The Custom-house entries average, at the different harbours of entry, for the last four years, as follows: —

St. John's	-	455 vessels entered and cleared.
Harbour Grace	105	
Trinity	-	57
Twillingate	-	30
Bay of Bulls	-	3
Ferryland	-	25
Placentia	-	10
Benin	-	45
St. Lawrence	-	9
Fortune Bay	-	34

753 vessels, exclusive of those entered
and cleared direct at Labrador.

Of the above vessels, the entries and clearances were —

Great Britain	-	298
Foreign, Europe, and Brazil	193	
British America	-	182
West Indies	-	72
United States	-	8

753; registering 84,427 tons,
and navigated by 5164
seamen.

In the seal fishery there were, in the spring of 1892, equipped in the different harbours of Newfoundland, 159 vessels, registering from 60 to 130 tons each, and manned with crews of from 15 to 80 seamen.

It is almost impossible to ascertain the number of vessels employed in the coasting trade, as many of the sealing vessels are, after the season, engaged in the intercolonial and coasting trade, and many more, which arrive from New Brunswick, Nova Scotia, Cape Breton, Prince Edward Island, are so employed.

By examining the Custom-house entries, the number of vessels altogether employed in the seal fishery and coasting trade of Newfoundland and Labrador are about 345, registering 26,000 tons, and navigated by 1470 seamen.

The number of fishing boats possessed by the resident inhabitants at Newfoundland and Labrador cannot be estimated at less than 8500; value about 10% sterling each.

From these statements, which are carefully condensed from the latest official returns, and information collected at the different harbours in the colony, the vast importance of Newfoundland to Great Britain may be observed, and that the fishery, even under great disadvantages, is still of sufficient consequence to be considered among the most valuable branches of our trade.

Raynal, in alluding to Newfoundland, observes with great truth, that "among all the settlements with which the Europeans have covered the New World, there is none of the nature of Newfoundland. The others have generally been the destruction of

the first colonists they have received, and of a great number of their successors: this climate, of itself, hath not destroyed one single person; it hath even restored strength to some of those whose health had been affected by less wholesome climates. The other colonies have exhibited a series of injustice, oppression, and carnage, which will for ever be holden in detestation. Newfoundland alone hath not offended against humanity, nor injured the rights of any other people.* The other settlements have yielded productions, only by receiving an equal value in exchange. Newfoundland alone hath drawn from the depths of the waters riches formed by nature alone; and which furnish subsistence to several countries of both hemispheres.

“How much time hath elapsed before this parallel hath been made! Of what importance did fish appear, when compared to the money which men went in search of in the New World! It was long before it was understood, if even it be yet understood, that the representation of the thing is not of greater value than the thing itself; and that a ship filled with cod, and a galleon, are vessels equally laden with gold. There is even this remarkable difference, that mines can be exhausted, and the fisheries never are.† Gold is not reproduced, but the fish are so incessantly.”

* Shooting the Red Indians forms an exception, with which the Abbé was unacquainted.

† An able naturalist, who is said to have had the patience to count the eggs contained in the roe of a single cod, found the number to be 9,344,000.

CHAP. V.

DESCRIPTION OF ST. JOHN'S.

THE port and town of St. John's is situated at the east side of the island, and on the peninsula that once formed Lord Baltimore's province of Avalon. The entrance to the harbour from the Atlantic is so narrow, that two large ships can little more than safely pass abreast. There are twelve fathoms water in the middle of the channel; and the only dangers are, the rocks close under the north head and light-house, and the Chain Rock, which lies a little more than half-way from the entrance to the basin, which forms one of the finest harbours in the world.

On the north side, the precipices rise perpendicularly to an immense height; and on the opposite shore, the altitude of the rocky cliffs and heights, although less abrupt, is still more elevated. At the south head, which is rather low, near the shore, but very high, a little back, there is a battery and signal-post, where signals are made, giving information of the ships in sight, which are again repeated at the fort, on the lofty eminence, nearly perpendicular to the sea, called Signal Hill. The Chain Rock received its name from a chain fixed to it, for the purpose of stretching across the Narrows, to prevent the admission of hostile ships. Several strong batteries on the north side, with Frederick Battery and Fort Amherst on the south, defend the harbour so

completely, as to render it perfectly secure against any ordinary attack. The situation of the Crow's Nest Battery, pitched on the summit of a conical hill, is very striking; and the character of the scenery surrounding the harbour is bold, rugged, and wild.

Fort Townshend, the usual residence of the governors, stands immediately over the town. The ascent to it is steep; but between it and Fort William, a distance of nearly three quarters of a mile, ground called "the Barrens," approaching somewhat to table-land, with a thin sterile soil, intervenes. Between Fort William and Signal Hill is St. George's Pond, at a very great height above high-water mark. It abounds with trout. To the north lies Quidi Vidi Pond, about a mile long, and from which a brook runs into a boat harbour, which communicates with the sea by a gut of the same name, rendered inaccessible to schooners by a rock extending across, and deep on each side. A trifling sum would pay the expense of blasting this rock, and rendering Quidi Vidi an excellent little harbour. Between Quidi Vidi and the Narrows, the coast is rugged, and the hills abrupt and high. A few spots in the neighbourhood of St. John's have, by much labour and expense, been brought under very tolerable cultivation; and it must be acknowledged that such lands are now of great value, as affording vegetables, hay, &c. Mr. Stewart, when deputy paymaster at St. John's, used to raise a great quantity of very good fruit in the garden attached to his house.* There is no doubt but a great

* The attorney-general, Mr. Simms, who now occupies the above property, continues to raise both fruit and vegetables with success. The lands surrounding Quidi Vidi are also very well cultivated.

abundance of vegetables for the use of the town might be raised in its environs.

The town of St. John's is built chiefly of wood ; it extends nearly along the whole of the north side of the port ; and there can scarcely be said to be more than one street, the others being only irregular lanes. A few of the houses are built of stone or brick, and some of the buildings are handsome ; but the appearance of the town altogether indicates at once what it was intended for — a kind of lodging-place for a convenient time ; a collection of stores for depositing fish, with wharfs along the whole shore for the convenience of shipping.

St. John's, like Halifax, and other towns built of wood, has suffered severely by fires. In the winter of 1816, great loss of property and individual distress was occasioned by a dreadful conflagration that took place ; and on the 7th of November, 1817, one hundred and forty houses, and 500,000*l.* value in property, were destroyed by a like calamity. Another fire, on the 21st of the same month, destroyed a great part of the town that had escaped the conflagration of the 7th ; and on the 21st of August following, the town experienced a fourth calamity of the same kind, which consumed a great number of houses, stores, and wharfs.

It was suspected, from the frequent occurrence of these fires, and particularly from the apathy with which the lower classes observed the activity that the sailors and the military displayed in extinguishing them, that they had been occasioned by incendiaries ; but the most vigilant search and minute investigation led to no such discovery. The scarcity of provisions

and the dread of famine, it is true, urged the labouring classes to pillage, and to disregard authority. Another cause also contributed to make these people desperate. The repeated losses of the merchants, and the ruinous state of the trade were such, that they could only afford to supply the planters to a certain extent. The consequence was, that thousands of fishermen and labourers were reduced to want, and they, on different occasions, became a lawless banditti, and broke open the stores of the merchants to obtain provisions. In a country like Newfoundland, shut out for some months, in a great measure, from the rest of the world, scarcity of provisions is the most terrible calamity that can possibly occur. Had the magazines not been saved from the fire which took place in winter, the inhabitants, it is believed, would have inevitably starved.

It is not probable that Newfoundland will ever again experience such distress; and St. John's appears to have surmounted the destruction to which it was subjected. The houses since erected are more comfortable, and built in better style, than formerly, although the streets and lanes are still irregular, and, in wet weather, extremely dirty.

The situation of St. John's, its excellent harbour, combining safety of access and the means of being easily defended, its most convenient position for the chief town of a great fishing colony, renders its possession of great consequence.

The public and government buildings are of considerable importance; but have little elegance to recommend them to notice, unless the immense residence lately built for the governor be an exception. It is considered a most extravagant build-

ing, and certainly too large for any establishment that is likely to be necessary at Newfoundland.

The custom-house, the Episcopal church, and the other places of worship are plain buildings, but answer sufficiently well for the population, and the condition of a society not very permanent. On the south side of the harbour there are but few houses, the nature of the ground forming objections to building.

In time of war St. John's was a place of great importance. Vessels met there to join convoy; and many rich captures were brought in, with a number of prisoners of respectability, both ladies and gentlemen, from the French West Indies. There are a greater number of shops, and a still greater number of public houses, in proportion to its size, in St. John's, than in most towns. Commodities were formerly dear; at present shop goods are as low as in any town in America; and fresh meat, poultry, and vegetables, although not so cheap as on the continent, are not unreasonably dear.

The population of St. John's fluctuates so frequently, that it is very difficult to state its numbers, even at any one period.* Sometimes, during the fishing season, the town appears full of inhabitants; at others, it seems half deserted.

At one time they depart for the seal fishery; at another, to different cod-fishing stations. In the fall of the year the fishermen arrive from all quarters, to settle their accounts with the merchants, and procure supplies for the winter. At this period St. John's is crowded with people; swarms of whom

* Fluctuating from 10,000 to 15,000.

depart for Prince Edward Island, Nova Scotia, and Cape Breton, to procure a livelihood in those places among the farmers during winter. Many of them never return again to the fisheries, but remain in those colonies; or often, if they have relations in the United States, and sometimes when they have not, find their way thither.

Society in St. John's, particularly when we consider its great want of permanency, is in a much more respectable condition than might be expected; and the morals and social habits of the inhabitants are very different from the description of Lieutenant Chappell, who represents the principal inhabitants as having risen from the lowest fishermen, and the rest composed of turbulent Irishmen, both alike destitute of literature. The fishermen, who are principally Irishmen, are by no means altogether destitute of education: there are few of them but can read or write; and they are, in general, neither turbulent nor immoral. That they soon become in Newfoundland, as well as in all the other colonies, very different people to what they were before they left Ireland, is very certain. The cause is obvious — they are more comfortable, and they work cheerfully. When, after a fishing season of almost incredible fatigue and hardship, they return to St. John's, and meet their friends and acquaintances, they indulge, it is true, in idleness for a short time, and occasionally in drinking; but when the hazardous life they follow is considered, we need not be surprised that they do so, especially in a place where rum is as cheap as beer is in England.*

* Mr. Morris, of St. John's, has, with great correctness, in a letter, in refutation, to Lord Bexley, on the state of society, reli-

For many years the officers of government and the merchants returned, before winter, to England ; but since the appointment of a resident governor, there has been a more permanent state of society. It must be acknowledged, that some of the inhabitants who have made fortunes in the country were, and it is much to their credit, formerly fishermen ; and these men are fully as polished in their manners, and equally as intelligent, as many of the principal merchants in London, or in any of the other great trading towns in the United Kingdom, who did not in early life receive a liberal education. A great majority of the merchants at St. John's, as well as the agents who represent the principal houses, are men who received, in the mother country, an edu-

gion, morals, and education at Newfoundland, described the character of the inhabitants.

They have no bigotry ; and Mr. Morris observes, " It is a very general custom at Newfoundland for the labouring classes and others, in the winter season, as a compliment to the clergyman, to bring him from the interior a quantity of wood or fuel. The friends of the clergyman of the Established Church at St. John's, some short time ago, proposed what is there called a ' general haul of wood ' for his benefit. I had the gratification of hearing the good, pious, and venerable bishop of the Roman Catholic church address his numerous congregation, and request of them that they would join in the ' haul of wood,' and that their general exertions for his brother of the Established Church would be more gratifying than any thing they could do for himself. On the day of the haul, it was most gratifying to observe the Roman Catholics, most of whom were Irish, or their descendants, vying and uniting with their brethren of other religious persuasions as to who should pay the greatest compliment to the respected individual, and moving immense masses of wood to the worthy minister's house ; by whom the whole was afterwards distributed to warm the houses of the poor in the town."

cation suited to all the purposes of utility and the general business of life, and are certainly as intelligent as any merchants in the world. This observation will be found perfectly just, if applied to the merchants and principal inhabitants in all the British colonies. The amusements of St. John's are much the same as in the colonies hereafter described.

There are three weekly newspapers published at St. John's; and there is also a book society. A seminary was established in 1802, for educating the poor, at which about three hundred children, Protestants and Roman Catholics, are educated. It was established, I believe, principally through Lord Gambier, then the admiral on the station.

The Benevolent Irish Society, established in 1806 by Colonel Murray, afterwards governor of Demerara, and James Macbraire, Esq., then a merchant of eminence at St. John's, but since retired to the banks of the Tweed, has extended the most beneficial relief to the aged and infirm; and has also diffused the benefits of education among the children of the poorer classes, by supporting a school in which from 200 to 300 of both sexes are instructed. A respectable school-house is now erecting by the society, to contain from 700 to 800 children.

An institution was formed last year (1828) at St. John's, called "The Association of Newfoundland Fishermen and Shoremen." In a country like Newfoundland, where the means which the labouring classes have to depend upon for subsistence are to be obtained from the casual success of the fisheries, no society or institution was more indispensable than this. Its object is to relieve individuals in distress, and to improve their moral conduct. To prevent

the fishermen and shoremen from squandering their wages, a kind of savings' bank has been established; and the subscriptions of the more wealthy are also added to the funds of the institution. The most that is to be allowed for individuals, is nine shillings per week, and, in case of death, five pounds to defray funeral expenses.

As the colonial legislature has the power and the means, its attention will, it is hoped, or at least should be directed to the improvement of the town, and the support and establishment of useful and benevolent institutions. May these objects, and the public good, not be neglected by such party feeling and jealousies between the Council and Assembly, as have so unfortunately distracted the affairs of Upper and Lower Canada. Errors or unconstitutional assumptions in the early usages and rules of each, may be fatal to the harmony of both, and form dangerous precedents. *The undoubted constitutional right of the Assembly is to originate all money bills;* and although the Council, and afterwards the Governor, have the power of rejecting the bills of the Lower House, the exercise of this right, particularly in matters of revenue, is seldom, if ever, productive of public good; and, according to the experience of all colonial legislation, usually attended with vexation and the obstruction of public improvement.

CHAP. VI.

GREAT BANK OF NEWFOUNDLAND. — FLEMISH CAP. — BANK
FOGS. — OUT HARBOURS. — CONCEPTION BAY. — CARBONIER.
— HARBOUR GRACE. — PORTUGAL COVE. — BELLEISLE. —
TRINITY BAY. — BONAVIDA. — GONDU BAY. — FAGO ISLAND.
— TWILLINGATE. — BAY OF EXPLOITS. — NOTRE DAME. —
WEST COAST OF NEWFOUNDLAND. — ST. GEORGE'S BAY. —
EAST COAST. — BAY OF BULLS. — FERRYLAND, ETC. —
SOUTH COAST. — TREPASSEY BAY. — ST. MARY'S. — PLA-
CENTIA. — FORTUNE BAY. — FRENCH ISLANDS, ST. PIERRE
AND MIGUELON.

THE Great Bank of Newfoundland is the most extensive sub-marine elevation yet discovered. Various theories and conjectures have been hazarded, in order to account for its formation. Some believe it was formerly an immense island, which had sunk, in consequence of its pillars or foundation having been loosened by an earthquake. Others, that it has been created by the gradual accumulation of sand, carried along by the gulf stream, and arrested here by meeting with the currents of the north. It is, in some places, five degrees, or about 200 miles, broad, and about 600 miles in length. The soundings on it are from twenty-five to ninety-five fathoms. The whole appears to be a mass of solid rock, formed like the other great inequalities of the globe. Its edges are abrupt, and deepen suddenly from twenty-five to ninety-five fathoms. In one place, laid down as rough fishing-ground, the soundings are only from ten to twenty

fathoms. The Cape Race, or Virgin Rocks, near the inner edge of this bank, have been lately surveyed by one of his Majesty's ships, and their position laid down correctly. These have always been considered dangerous, though seldom seen: and although there is about four fathoms on the shoalest, yet, during a heavy sea, it is probable a ship would be immediately dashed to pieces on them.

The best fishing-grounds on this bank are between the latitudes of 42° and 46° N. The outer bank, or Flemish Cap, appears to be a continuation of the grand bank, at a lower elevation. The soundings between them, for about 100 miles, are from 120 to 218 fathoms.

The outer bank lies within the longitudes of $44^{\circ} 15'$, and $45^{\circ} 25' W.$, and the latitudes of $44^{\circ} 10'$ and $47^{\circ} 30' N.$ The soundings on it are from 100 to 160 fathoms. From the great bank to Nova Scotia, a continuation of banks succeed.

Those perpetual fogs that hang over the banks, and hover along the coasts of Newfoundland and Cape Breton, are caused by the meeting of the tropical waters brought along by the gulf stream, with the waters carried down by the influence of the winds from the polar regions.

These currents come in contact with each other on the banks of Newfoundland, and form those eternal fogs, by the difference of their temperatures, and that of their atmospheres, producing the two effects of evaporation and condensation. Unless it blows hard, there is not by any means a heavy sea on the bank, as is generally represented, except within a few miles of the edges, where there is a perpetually rough sea, with a cold, thick, and piercing fog. A thermometer

will as certainly ascertain the moment a ship is over the bank, as the sounding lead; the temperature of the water being 10° to 12° Fahrenheit colder than that of the surrounding sea.

Along the coast of America, within the gulf stream, there is a strong counter current; and in making an outward voyage, navigators think it advantageous to keep in its track. The current of the gulf stream is so powerful, that it retards, on an outward voyage, the progress of a ship from forty to sixty miles a day, while, on a homeward voyage, it increases the rate of sailing so much, that sailors term returning from America to Europe, "going down hill."

Conception Bay, which enters Newfoundland about twenty miles north of St. John's, is fifty-three miles deep from Point de Grates on the west side, and thirty-eight miles from Cape St. Francis on the east, to Holyrood, and about twenty miles broad. The shores of this inlet are bold and mountainous. The headlands and coasts between the numerous harbours or bays within it, are rugged and precipitous. In regard to population (about 24,000), opulence of the inhabitants, and enterprise of the fishermen, it must be considered the first district in Newfoundland.

It received its name from Gaspar de Corte Real, a Portuguese navigator, of distinguished family, who made a voyage to Newfoundland in 1561. It has several settlements on the west side, from Point de Grates to the bottom of the bay: the principal are Carbonier and Harbour Grace.

Carbonier is an important fishing station; but the harbour is not equal to Harbour Grace, being more exposed. The whole of the west coast of Conception Bay, particularly that part called the North Shore, is

very much exposed to easterly winds. In 1775, all the vessels belonging to Harbour Grace and Carbonier were driven on shore; and one hundred or more boats were impelled into one cove, where they were dashed to pieces against the rocks, and all the crews perished.

Harbour Grace is a safe, but rather intricate harbour, having a *spit* nearly across the entrance; but it has a remarkably fine beach, which is a great convenience for the fishery. Its population is said to be near 5000. There are a respectable school and some other public buildings here. There is a church, in which the Episcopal missionary officiates; a large Catholic chapel, with a high steeple, detached; and Presbyterian and Methodist meeting-houses. Also, a weekly newspaper is printed in this place.*

Between Harbour Grace and Holyrood, at the head of the bay, there are numerous settlements in the coves and bays that separate a succession of perpendicular cliffs, and wild rugged promontories.

The only settlement of consequence on the east side of Conception Bay is Portugal Cove. It is a bad harbour, exposed to the westerly winds; and when it blows from that direction, the fishermen are obliged to haul up their boats on the beach. It is ten miles by a road across the peninsula to St. John's; and a communication is kept up with the west side of the bay, by a packet, which plies between Portugal Cove and Harbour Grace.

Belle-Isle, situated in Conception Bay, two or three miles from Portugal Cove, is about six miles

* A fire has lately (1832) destroyed many of the most valuable buildings in this place.

long, and its soil is a fine rich black mould, without rocks or stones.

Trinity Bay nearly separates the old province of Avalon from the rest of Newfoundland. It is about seventy miles deep, and from twenty to twenty-five miles broad. It contains a vast number of bays, harbours, and coves, several small islands, and one, about twenty miles long on the west side, called Random Island. The names of the almost innumerable places within this great bay would puzzle the most genuine *root-catcher* that ever existed. Trinity Harbour is the principal settlement.

Bonavista Bay, so named by Cabot, next to, and north-west of, Trinity, is upwards of forty miles broad, about the same depth, full of bays and inlets, and abounding in rocks and islands. It has some valuable fishing establishments.

West of Bonavista is Gander Bay, opposite which is Fogo Island, formerly frequented by the Red Indians, and on which there is now several extensive mercantile establishments.

Exploits Bay is a broad bay, full of islands, the largest of which is New World Island, close to which is Twillingate, the most northerly of the English settlements. This bay, and its river—which is the largest in Newfoundland—have been the scenes of various rencounters with the Red Indians, from which circumstance the name of Exploits is said to have been given.

The bays of Notre Dame, White Bay, and Hare Bay, situated between Exploits Bay and the northernmost point of Newfoundland, are deep gulfs, with numerous harbours and islands, but with few settlers.

The whole of the west coast of Newfoundland, north of the Bay of St. George, is unsettled, although some of the lands are the best on the island. At the Bay of Port au Port there is plenty of coal. The Bay of Islands receives three fine rivers, one of which, called the Humber, runs out of a large lake.* Farther north is Bonne Bay, which branches into two arms; and then follow several small coves, bays, and rivers, for about sixty miles, where the Bay of Ignorachoix, containing three harbours, enters the island.

A few miles nearer the Strait of Belle-Isle, St. John's Bay is situated, containing several islands, and receiving the waters of Castor river, which flows through about thirty miles of country. The lands about this bay are mountainous. The coast, for about thirty miles north, is indented with small rivers, and numerous minor inlets; and then, along the Strait of Belle-Isle to Cape Norman, the most north-westerly point of Newfoundland, a straight shore prevails, along which an old Indian path is observable.

Several of the harbours north of Cape John were formerly resorted to, during the fishing season, by the fishermen from Conception Bay, before the French were allowed the privilege of those parts.

Between St. John's and Cape Race, the principal settlements and harbours are Bay of Bulls, Brigas, Cape Broyle Harbour, Ferryland, Aquaforte, Fermeuse, and Renowes.

Bay of Bulls is a good harbour, but rather dan-

* This lake is only known to the Indians, who describe it as sixty miles long. There is a dark-grey marble found at Bay of Islands.

gerous. Sunken rocks render a pilot necessary. In 1796, Admiral Richerry destroyed several of the stores and houses. It is rather populous, and a respectable business was once carried on here by the merchants. A footpath leads from it to St. John's, a distance of twenty-seven miles. It is, however, a dangerous road, and crosses several fords, over which two or three false steps would be attended with destruction; yet, in 1762, the French, by this route, proceeded to and took St. John's.

Ferryland is the oldest place in Newfoundland, and there is a considerable extent of the surrounding land under cultivation, planted originally by Lord Baltimore. It was for many years the residence of the Lords of Avalon and their deputies; and it is said that for some time it became the seat of the transatlantic muses.

It is at present tolerably well settled, has places of worship, schools, and some respectable mercantile establishments. The Isle of Boys, near this place, was fortified in 1761 as a place of refuge, while the French had possession of St. John's.

Trepassy (formerly called Abram Trepaza) is a bay between Cape Race and Cape Freels. On the west side there is a good harbour. The eastern shores are dangerous to approach. Several families are settled here, who subsist by means of fishing, raising a few cattle, and a little cultivation.

West of Trepassy Bay, opening to the south, are three great bays; namely, St. Mary's, Placentia, and Fortune. These have within them countless harbours and islands, and contain a scattered, but altogether a numerous, population.

St. Mary's Bay has several settlements and exten-

sive cod-fisheries. A salmon-fishery is also carried on. This bay is more than thirty miles deep, and from fifteen to twenty broad. The distance between Salmon River, at its head, to Holyrood, at the head of Conception Bay, is about ten miles, and from Collinet, another branch, to Trinity Bay, about eight miles.

Placentia Bay is also full of harbours and islands. It is about sixty miles deep, and about forty-five miles broad from Cape St. Mary's to Corbin Head, and from twenty to thirty miles broad at different places farther up. There is excellent cod-fishing in this bay; salmon abound in its rivers, and herring, &c. frequent it, as well as all these bays, periodically. The lands are rugged and barren, and the shores are lined with islands and rocks, among which, however, there are many excellent harbours. There are five or six extensive establishments in this bay.

Placentia, on the east side of the bay, was the chief settlement planted by the French in Newfoundland. They had it strongly fortified, and endeavoured at that time to drive the English altogether out of the fisheries. One hundred and fifty ships can lie in safety within the harbour, the entrance of which only admits one vessel at a time. There is a great strand or beach between two hills, sufficiently extensive for sixty ships to cure and dry their fish on. From the head of Placentia Bay to Trinity, the isthmus which connects the peninsula of Avalon to the main body of Newfoundland is low, and little more than three miles over. The fishermen haul their skiffs across.

Fortune Bay is from sixty-five to seventy miles deep, and twenty to thirty broad; it contains innu-

merable harbours, and many islands and rocks. The lands are bleak, rugged, and barren. There are several fishing establishments within this bay, for which, and for no other purpose, nature has adapted it. Here one of the most extensive houses in Newfoundland carries on a whale-fishery with boats*, as well as a most extensive cod-fishery. The coast between Fortune Bay and St. George's Bay has been already generally described.

The islands of St. Pierre and Mequelon, ceded in 1814 to France, lie off the mouth of Fortune Bay. Langley, although laid down on the maps as surrounded with water, and appears a distinct island when viewed at some distance off, is, however, connected to Mequelon by a dry sand beach.† St. Peter's only has a harbour, which is the rendezvous of the French ships. Here, in a small town built since the peace, the French governor resides: it is the headquarters of the French fisheries. These islands are high and rugged: they produce nothing but shrubs, moss, and grass. Ptarmigan, or white partridges, abound on them; and the most plentiful cod-fishing surrounds their shores.

* A vast number of hump-back whales, which yield from three to five tuns of oil each, have been taken by the fishermen belonging to this establishment.

† In 1825, on my homeward passage from America, we were nearly driven ashore, in a gale of wind, on the west side of Mequelon. I asked the captain if we could not run through the passage, which appeared by the chart to separate Langley and Mequelon. He replied that he had formerly landed on those islands, and walked several times across the beach from Mequelon to Langley; but that, during stormy weather and high tides, the sea flowed between them.

CHAP. VII.

STRAIT OF BELLE-ISLE. — CONTINENT OF LABRADOR.

THE Strait of Belle-Isle, so named from the island called North Belle-Isle, at the Atlantic entrance, separates Newfoundland from Labrador and the continent of America. This strait is about fifty miles long, and twelve broad; is deep, and safe as a passage to and from the Gulf of St. Lawrence, but, from not being much frequented, is disliked by most masters of large merchant ships. There are no harbours on the coast of Newfoundland facing it; and those on the Labrador coast are not considered safe, except the havens near the north and south extremities. For schooners and fishing craft, there are, in every direction along the Labrador coast, safe and convenient shelter.

The coast of Labrador, in consequence of the extensive fisheries carried on in its harbours by the merchants of Newfoundland, and being under the same government, is more intimately connected with that colony than with any other part of America.

Gaspar de Corte Real * named the northern part, in 1561, Terra Verde, or Greenland, and the southern part he called Terra Labrador, or Terra Agricolæ, thinking the latter fit for cultivation. It was alto-

* This navigator either perished afterwards on the coast, or he and his crew were murdered by the Esquimaux.

gether, for some time after, called, after him, Terra Corterealis, which name has, however, long been supplanted by that of Labrador.

This vast country, equal in square miles to France, Spain, and Germany, has not a resident population of 4000 inhabitants, including the natives and Moravians.

Its surface is as sterile and naked as any part of the globe. Rocks, swamps, and water, are its prevailing features; and in this inhospitable country, which extends from 50° to 64° north latitude, and from the longitude of 56° west on the Atlantic, to that of 78° west on Hudson's Bay, vegetation only appears as the last efforts of expiring nature. Small scraggy poplar, stunted firs, creeping birch, and dwarf willows, thinly scattered in the southern parts, form the whole catalogue of trees; herbs and grass are also, in sheltered places, to be met with; but, in the most northerly parts, different varieties of moss and lichens are the only signs of vegetation.

The climate is, in severity, probably as cold as at the poles of the earth, and the summer is of short duration. Yet, with all these disadvantages, this country, which is along its coasts indented with excellent harbours, and which has its shores frequented by vast multitudes of fishes, is of great importance to England. The whole of the interior of Labrador appears, from the aspect of what has been explored, and from the reports of the Esquimaux and other Indians, to be broken up with rivers, lakes, and rocks. The wild animals are principally bears, wolves, foxes, and otters; beavers and deer are not numerous, but their furs are remarkably close and beautiful.

Insects are, during the short space of hot weather, numerous in swampy places. In winter they exist in a frozen state; and in this condition, when introduced to the influence of solar heat, or the warmth of fire, are soon restored to animation.

The phenomenon of aurora borealis is uncommonly brilliant in Labrador; and I have no doubt that it possesses, from the increased and increasing variation of the compass, a most powerful magnetic influence; but this I leave to the determination of the speculative philosopher. Minerals are said to abound in Labrador, but very little is known either of its geology or mineralogy.

During the fishing season, from 280 to 300 schooners proceed from Newfoundland to the different fishing stations on the coast of Labrador, where about 20,000 British subjects are employed for the season. About one third of the schooners make two voyages, loaded with dry fish, back to Newfoundland during the summer; and several merchant vessels proceed from Labrador with their cargoes direct to Europe, leaving, generally, full cargoes for the fishing vessels to carry to Newfoundland. A considerable part of the fish of the second voyage is in a green or pickled state, and dried afterwards at Newfoundland. Eight or nine schooners from Quebec frequent the coast, having on board about 80 seamen and 100 fishermen. Some of the fish caught by them is sent to Europe, and the rest carried to Quebec; besides which, they carry annually about 60000^l. worth of furs, oil, and salmon, to Canada.

From Nova Scotia and New Brunswick, but chiefly from the former, 100 to 120 vessels resort to Labrador: the burden of these vessels may amount

to 6000 or 7000 tons, carrying about 1200 seamen and fishermen. They generally carry the principal part of their cargoes home in a green state.

One third of the resident inhabitants are English, Irish, or Jersey servants, left in charge of the property in the fishing rooms, and who also employ themselves, in the spring and fall, catching seals in nets. The other two thirds live constantly at Labrador, as furriers and seal-catchers, on their own account, but chiefly in the former capacity, during winter; and all are engaged in the fisheries during summer. Half of these people are Jerseymen and Canadians, most of whom have families.

From 16,000 to 18,000 seals are taken at Labrador in the beginning of winter and in spring. They are very large; and the Canadians, and other winter residents, are said to feast and fatten on their flesh. About 4000 of these seals are killed by the Esquimaux. The whole number caught produce about 350 tons of oil, — value about 8000%.

There are six or seven English houses, and four or five Jersey houses, established at Labrador, unconnected with Newfoundland, who export their fish and oil direct to Europe. The quantity exported last year to the Mediterranean was about

54,000 quintals cod-fish, at 10s.	-	-	£27,000
1,050 tierces salmon, at 60s.	-	-	31,50
To England, about 200 tuns cod oil	-	-	5,200
220 do. seal do.	-	-	4,880
Furs	-	-	3,150
			£43,380
By Newfoundland houses, 27,500 quintals cod-fish, at 10s.			13,750
280 tierces salmon, at 60s.			840
Total direct export from Labrador	-		£57,970

	Brought forward	- £57,970
Produce sent direct to Newfoundland from Labrador:—		
32,120 quintals cod-fish, 10s. best quality	-	16,060
312,000 quintals cod-fish, at 8s.	-	124,800
1,800 tuns cod oil, at 20l.	-	36,000
Salmon, &c.	-	3,220
Fish, &c. sent to Canada, about	-	12,000
Do. carried to Nova Scotia and New Brunswick,		
should be in value at least	-	52,000

Estimated value of the produce of Labrador, exclusive
of what the Moravians send to London * - } £302,050

The Labrador fishery has, since 1814, increased more than sixfold, principally in consequence of our fishermen being driven from the grounds now occupied by the French.

The Moravians, whose principal settlement on the coast of Labrador is at Nain, have a ship annually from London, which leaves the Thames in May or June, and arrives at Nain in July, from whence it returns in September, laden with a valuable cargo of furs, oils, &c. for London. My enquiries respecting these people have not been very successful. They fixed themselves in three different harbours of Labrador, about the middle of the last century: their intercourse with, and settlements at, Greenland, led them to this region. Their habits are simple; and the quiet and unobserved life they lead is of a nature which leaves to few in America, or elsewhere, the knowledge of their existence. Their trade is wholly

* These statements are made at the most depressed prices, and not at the average prices, which would increase the gross value to 342,400l. The Americans of the United States had, in the year 1829, about 500 vessels and 15,000 men employed on the coast, and their "catch" amounted to 1,100,000 quintals fish, and about 3000 tuns oil: value altogether about 610,000l.

with the Esquimaux, in the way of bartering coarse cloths, powder, shot, guns, and edge tools, for furs, oils, &c.*

On the British resorting to Labrador, after it was annexed to Newfoundland, some regulations were made, in order to purchase the lands from the Indians for the King of Great Britain. If such arrangement was entered into, it must have passed unobserved, and there could be little difficulty in purchasing any right which the miserable Esquimaux would maintain.

Of all the tribes which have been discovered on the shores of America, the Esquimaux are the most filthy, disgusting, and miserable. They form an exception, in their appearance, stature, and manner of living, to all the other tribes. The Greenlanders are said to speak the same language, and to resemble them in shape and appearance; and in stature they resemble the Laplanders. They may possibly be of Northmen or European origin. All the other Indian tribes despise and hate them. They are thinly scattered along the coast of Labrador, and the arctic shores north-west of Hudson's Bay. The greatest number of them in any one place appears to be at Invutoke Inlet, or Esquimaux Bay, on the Atlantic coast of Labrador, where there are about two hundred and fifty. The Canadians and others residing at Labrador employ the Esquimaux in catching fish, &c. They have neither the pride nor the spirit of the other savage tribes, but they are equally

* I have had no opportunity of seeing the Moravians; and the above account was given me by a gentleman at Labrador connected with the customs.

cruel. It is said that, on the death of the mother of a child not sufficiently strong to take care of itself, the latter is put to death, and buried with the former. I have not sufficient proof to state that this is positively the case, but many circumstances induce me to believe it to be a fact.

There is a court held at Labrador during summer, from which appeals lie to the supreme court of St. John's. An armed vessel visits, and continues generally along the coast during the greater part of the fishing season.

CHAP. VIII.

CHARACTERISTICS AND PURSUITS OF THE INHABITANTS.

THE leading features of the character of the inhabitants of Newfoundland, both at St. John's and all the out-harbours, are, honesty, persevering industry, hardy contempt of danger and fatigue, and a laudable sense of propriety in moral and religious duties. For upwards of twenty years, not more than four malefactors were sentenced to die. "A few months' imprisonment was the greatest punishment inflicted for the last ten years."*

There are places of public worship in each of the out-harbours in which there is an adequate population. The religious denominations are, members of the church of England, Roman Catholics, Presbyterians, Independents, and Methodists, each of whom have clergymen among them. In the principal out-harbours, also, there are schools where the rudiments of education may be acquired. The clergymen of the established church are paid by the Society for the Propagation of the Gospel in Foreign Parts; and the Methodist missionaries are supported chiefly by their own society in England. The Catholic and Presbyterian clergymen are provided for by the voluntary contributions of their own flocks.

* Mr. Morris's pamphlet.

Religious belief at Newfoundland is equally free to all: no one interferes with his neighbour's creed; no ill-will prevails; and the estimation in which a man's religious opinions are held, depends on the correctness of his moral character, and not on the particular form of his belief. There is a titular Catholic bishop of Newfoundland at St. John's, and a vicar-general at Harbour Grace. Candour requires me to say, that the Catholic clergy of Newfoundland guard, with incessant vigilance, the morals of those who profess their religion, while, at the same time, they maintain a spirit of friendly feeling towards the clergymen of other Christian denominations.

Colonists, it may always be observed, retain many of the customs and habits of their ancestors; and some customs still prevail in Newfoundland that are obsolete in Europe, among which saluting the bride may be noticed. This custom was once fashionable in Europe, and is said to be derived from the Roman method of detecting women secretly addicted to drunkenness.

The inhabitants are employed, the majority wholly, and the rest occasionally, in the fisheries. Feeding cattle and a few sheep, and cultivating small spots of land, are also partial sources of occupation. The women, besides affording great assistance to the men during the process of curing fish, make themselves useful in planting gardens, and gathering the productions of the soil. In all domestic duties they are correct and attentive; and they manufacture the small quantity of wool they have among them, into strong worsted stockings, mittens, and socks.

Capital offences are exceedingly rare, and petty

thefts are scarcely known ; while property is seldom secured by locked doors, as in the United Kingdom.

In the winter season, much of the time of the inhabitants is occupied in bringing home fuel. Boats for the fishery are also constructed at this period ; and poles, &c. for fish flakes, are, or should be, provided.

Marriages and christenings are celebrated in the fall, when the labours of the fisheries are ended, or sometimes in the spring, previous to the fishery commencing. These are always times of festivity, when the neighbours are invited to partake of the best, and enjoy themselves with singing and dancing. The young men distinguish the occasion by the firing of guns.

Funeral ceremonies are also conducted with some kind of parade. It is considered decent that both the Protestant and Catholic clergymen meet together at the house of the deceased ; and it is accounted indecorous for the neighbours not to attend the funeral, although invitations are not sent. Cakes, cheese, wine, and spirits are laid out for those who choose to partake of them. The funeral procession then, with decorous solemnity, moves on to the graveyard, and after the service they return to the house of the deceased, where they separate. In thinly settled and healthy countries, the number of deaths are so few, that the decease of any of the inhabitants is attended with a feeling of melancholy unknown in populous towns, except among the immediate relations of the deceased. Waking the dead is also general among the Irish labourers ; and they observe the same customs and festivities at Christmas and at Easter as have long been common in Ireland.

St. Patrick's day, and Sheelagh's (the saint's wife), the day following, are occasions on which the mass of the Newfoundland Irish revel in the full glory of feasting and drinking. They are certainly at those periods beyond control; and they completely forget themselves; fighting and drinking, until they are overcome by the one, or laid up by the other.*

Their conduct, on these occasions, has been much reprobated. It would be well if they did not indulge in such excesses. But when we consider the hard labour to which they have applied themselves during the year, and the terrible dangers they are about to encounter among the ice, immediately after the feast of their darling saint; and take also into account the associations arising from the day vivifying their recollections of Ireland, we must make very liberal allowances for them.

Various customs, common to the different places from which the present inhabitants or their ancestors came, are still kept up at Christmas. Dinners, dances, and Christmas-boxes, are not forgotten; the "Yule log" is burnt, and the ceremony of lighting it is attended with firing of guns before the door.

Among the labouring classes, as is common among all whose minds are not raised by education above superstition, a belief in apparitions prevails, and they delight in relating ghost stories, or whatever is marvellous.

The manners of the people of Newfoundland mix and alter from local circumstances, and the intercourse and intermarriages of the inhabitants, who

* These excesses have become less frequent.

are either English, Scotch, Irish, natives of Guernsey and Jersey, or their descendants.

Celibacy is uncommon among them. There are few families in which there are not from five to twelve children.

The fishermen's houses are one story high, built of wood growing on the island, and covered with boards and shingles imported from Prince Edward Island, Cape Breton, Nova Scotia, or New Brunswick. It was long customary to erect the walls with upright posts stuck in the ground; but an improvement prevails by building the wooden walls on a stone foundation. Sometimes an additional building is joined, called a "lean-to," which is either in one room—a kind of parlour—or is divided into sleeping apartments. There is, usually, not more than one large fire-place, which is in the kitchen, and around which, in winter, all the inmates of the house assemble when the labours of the day are over. In the chimneys they smoke their salmon, or hang up the hams of the pigs reared on the island. On each side of the chimney there are often benches with coops underneath for poultry, which, from the warmth of the dwelling, lay eggs all winter.

The usual diet of the people is made up of biscuit, potatoes and fish, salt pork, and bohea tea. Spruce beer is a very common and excellent beverage, particularly for people who live much on fish and salt meat.

The process of making it is simple. A few black spruce branches are chopped into small pieces, and put into a pot containing six or eight gallons of water, and boiled for several hours. The liquor is then strained, and put into a cask that will contain

eighteen gallons. Molasses is added in the proportion of one gallon to eighteen; a part of the grounds of the last brewing, and a few hops, if at hand, are also put in; and the cask, filled up with cold water, is left to ferment: in twenty-four hours it becomes fit for use. Spirits are frequently mixed with spruce beer, to make the drink named Callibogus. From the cheapness of rum, the labouring people, though by no means generally, acquire habits of drinking, which they have only resolution to resist by swearing, by the Cross or the Gospels, that they will not taste rum, or spirits of any kind. This act is called Kegging, extending to one or more years, and often for life.

The inhabitants are generally very healthy; but, from living much on flesh, fish, and oily food, fevers or small-pox, when imported into the island from other places, are generally fatal and occasion great mortality. Consumptions do not appear to be so frequent as on the continent of America.

The air, though rare and cold, seems to invigorate the constitutions of the people; and their strength in old age, when we consider the life of unremitting labour which they necessarily lead, is surprising. Men and women, at the age of eighty, are frequently observed attending the fish flakes.

The great and primary business of the people of Newfoundland is that of pursuing and catching the inhabitants of the ocean. If habit, as is generally allowed, becomes nature, the Newfoundlanders are naturally, from their pursuits, certainly the most adventurous and fearless men in the world. Courage and industry, which certainly prevail, are to them absolutely necessary.

The seal fishery, as it is generally termed, has only become important within the last few years. It is little more than thirty years since the first vessels ventured among those formidable fields of ice that float from the northern regions, during the months of March, April, and May, down to the coast of Newfoundland.

Those who are acquainted with the terrific grandeur, particularly during stormy weather, of the lofty islands and mountains of ice, covering often from two to three hundred miles of the ocean, and occasionally arrested by the coasts or shoals, will admit that it requires more intrepidity to brave the dangers of these elements, than to encounter a military fortification.

CHAP. IX.

MODE OF PURSUING THE SEAL AND COD-FISHERIES. — OPERATIONS DURING THE FISHING SEASONS, ETC.

THE vessels equipped for the seal fishery are from 60 to 120 tons each, with crews of from sixteen to thirty men. They are always prepared for sea with necessary stores, fire-arms, poles to defend them from the ice, &c., before the feast of St. Patrick. Immediately after, the crews at the harbours, then frozen over, collect together, with all assistance from the shoremen, and, dividing themselves into two rows on the ice, and provided with hatchets, large saws, and strong poles, fix on two lines far enough separate to allow their largest schooners to pass. Each party cuts along its respective line, and they divide the solid mass between them into squares, which are shoved with poles under the firm ice; continuing this laborious operation until a channel is opened to the sea. The vessels then proceed to the field ice, pushing their way through the openings, or working to windward of it, until they meet it covered with vast herds of seals. Where these occur, the part on which they are, is called seal meadows. These animals are surprised by the seal hunters while they are sleeping on the ice, and attacked with firelocks, or with strong bludgeons, which are considered preferable. But the hunters have frequently to shoot

the large ones, which will turn upon the men, and make resistance. The piteous moan and cry of the young ones during the slaughter, require more than common nerves to disregard. The hooded seals will draw their hoods, which are shot-proof, over their heads.

The skins, with the fat surrounding the bodies, are stripped off together, and the scalped carcasses left on the ice. The pelts, or scalps, are carried to the vessels, and packed closely in the hold; but the weather often is such as to leave no time to scalp the seals on the ice, and the carcasses are then carried whole to the vessel.

The situation of these vessels during the storms of snow and sleet which they have at that season inevitably to experience, is attended with fearful dangers. Many vessels have been crushed to pieces by the tremendous power of the ice closing on them; and their crews have also not unfrequently perished. Storms during night, among the ice, must be truly terrible; yet the hardy Newfoundland seal-hunters seem even to court those sublime and hazardous adventures.

When the vessels are loaded with scalps, or, if unsuccessful, when the ice is scattered, and all, except the islands, is dissolved by the heat of the advancing summer, they return to their respective ports. Some vessels, which succeed soon after meeting the ice in filling up a cargo, make a second voyage.

The fat, or seal blubber, is separated from the skins, cut into pieces, and put into frame-work vats, through which, and small boughs inside, the oil oozes on being exposed to the heat of the sun. In three

or four weeks it runs rapidly off, and becomes the seal oil of commerce.

The vats for cod oil are made of strong planks, dovetailed at the ends, and strengthened with iron clamps. Whatever water is mixed with the cod blubber, is afterwards allowed to run out by a plug-hole at the bottom, while the oil, floating on the top, runs off at different holes, and is guided into casks by leather spouts. The first that runs off is the virgin, or pale oil, and the last, the brown oil. The blubber fritters are afterwards boiled in metal caldrons, to obtain the remaining oil from them.

The planters sell their seal-pelts to the merchants, who manufacture the oil, and ship it off in hogsheads, principally to England.*

The seal skins are spread and salted in bulk, and afterwards packed up in bundles of five each for shipping.

Seals are still caught at Newfoundland and Labrador, on the plan first adopted, by strong nets set across such narrow channels as they are in the habit of passing through.

In the beginning of June, the cod-fishery commences. The bank fishing is now, from various causes, abandoned by the English to the Americans and French, although the political value of Newfoundland, as a nursery for seamen, depended very much on this fishery. It was carried on by vessels fitted out in England; and the people employed in it being the greater part of the year at sea, exposed to the

* The water pumped out of vessels carrying oil always calms the surrounding sea; and the sea on the banks was made smooth, it is said, during the fishing season when the bank fishery predominated.

weather of all seasons, cold and hot, stormy and calm, wet and dry, were consequently prepared for any hardship, and ready to encounter any danger.

The bankers, or vessels fishing on the banks, usually anchor where they find plenty of cod, which they catch with lines and hooks, or occasionally with jiggers. The operations of gutting and splitting are the same as on shore; and the fish is salted in bulk in the vessel's hold, until the cargo is completed. The fish caught on the banks are larger than those caught by the boats employed in the shore fishery, but do not look so well when cured, owing to lying so long in salt before being dried. It is, however, preferred in some markets, on account of its size. At present, not more than eight or ten British vessels are employed in the bank fishery; formerly there were six or seven hundred.

The boats used for the shore fishery are of different sizes; some requiring only two hands, while others have four, which is the general number. It is not uncommon to observe boys and girls, when cod is plentiful, fishing in these boats. Every fisherman is provided with two lines, having to each two hooks; both lines are thrown over at the same time, one on each side of the boat, to which one man attends. The kind of bait in season used, is such as herring, mackerel, caplins, squid, clams, and, when none of these are to be had, the flesh of birds. The entrails of fish taken with jiggers, and what is found within them, is also used for bait. A jigger is a piece of lead made into the form of a small fish, with two hooks fixed in its mouth, and turned outwards in opposite directions. It is made fast to a line, and thrown over into the sea; and by jerking it up and down, the hooks

frequently fasten into the cod or other fish ; the cod, which is probably the most voracious fish we know, also darts at and swallows the artificial fish with the hooks fastened in it. By these methods vast quantities of cod are caught. Seines are also used, by which multitudes of cod are hauled ashore in coves on the coast of Labrador.

When the boats are stationed on the fishing ground, which is sometimes within the harbours, and, in the first of the season, near the shore, the men sit or stand at equal distances from the gunwales, and each attends to his own lines. So abundant are the fish at times, that a couple of cod are hooked on each line before the lead reaches the bottom ; and while the one line is running out, the fisherman has only to turn round and pull in the other, with a fish on each hook. In this way they fill the boat in a very short time. If the cod be very large, it is lifted into the boat, as soon as it comes to the water's edge, by a strong iron hook fixed on the end of a short pole, called a gaft. As soon as the boat is loaded, they proceed to the stage on the shore with the fish, when the operations of splitting and salting succeed. Fish should be brought to the shore within forty-eight hours, at farthest, after it is caught. When plentiful, the boats often return in two or three hours, and push away again immediately after the fish is thrown on the stage.

The stage is a building erected on posts, jutting out into the sea far enough to allow the fishing boats to come close to its end. Generally covered over and attached to it, or rather on the same platform, is the salt-house, in which there are one or more tables, with strong wooden stools for four important

personages among the shoremen, distinguished by the expressive cognomens of cut-throat, header, splitter, and salter.*

The fish is thrown with a kind of pike upon the stage, and carried generally by boys or women to the long table. The business of the cut-throat, as his name implies, is to cut, with a sharp-pointed double-edged knife, across the throat of the fish to the bone, and rip open its bowels. He then passes it quickly to the header, who, with a strong sudden wrench, pulls off the head, and tears out the entrails, passing the fish instantaneously to the splitter, and at the same moment separating the liver, precipitates the head and entrails through a hole in the platform into the sea, under the stage-floor. The splitter, with one cut, lays the fish open from head to tail, and, almost in the twinkling of an eye, with another cut takes out the sound bone, which, if the sounds are not to be preserved, he lets fall through a hole into the sea, throwing the fish at the same moment, with the other hand, into the trudge-barrow. Such is the amazing quickness of the operations of heading and splitting, that it is not unusual to decapitate and take out the entrails and back-bones of six fish in one minute.

When the barrow is full, it is carried away immediately to the salter, and replaced by another.

The business of the salter is most important, as the value of the whole voyage depends on his care

* The splitter is next in rank to the foreman of the fishing-rooms, who is called master-voyage, and, under him, receives most wages; the next in precedence and wages is the salter. The cut-throat and header are pretty much on a par.

and judgment. He takes the fish out of the barrow, one by one, spreads them, with the back undermost, in layers, sprinkling a proper quantity of salt between each. The proportion of salt necessary to cure cod-fish, is generally estimated at the rate of one hog-head to ten or twelve quintals; but much depends on the place, and the state of the weather. More salt is used for green fish, or fish remaining long in bulk, than for fish salted on shore, to be spread out to dry in a few days; and more is necessary at Labrador than at Newfoundland. Sometimes the fish is salted in vats, which requires less salt, and also increases the weight; but it does not look so well, nor is it so much esteemed in foreign markets.

In salting, the *bulks* must not be high, as the weight of the higher would injure the lower tiers. In bulks, the fish must remain five or six days, and in vats, four or five. It is then carried in barrows, and thrown into vats or troughs full of holes, suspended from the stage in the sea. In this vat, the washer stands up to his knees among the fish and sea-water, and wipes off the salt with a mop. The fish is then carried away in a barrow, and piled in a long heap, called by the unintelligible name of "water-horse," for the purpose of draining. In this state it may remain a day, before it is spread out on the flakes.

The fish then undergoes the process of drying. They are spread, heads and tails, either on hand-flakes, which are about breast high from the ground, and slightly constructed, or on broad flakes, raised on strong posts sometimes twenty feet high, with platforms of poles laid across. The latter, as being more exposed to pure air, are considered preferable.

The fish is also, at times, spread out on boughs laid on the beach or ground. In the morning, it is usually spread, with the fleshy side uppermost, and turned about mid-day, or more frequently, if the weather be hot. In the evening, they are gathered into small heaps, called "fagots," which are increased in size, as the fish dries, from four or five to twenty or more; and when nearly cured, made into large circular piles, much in the form of a hay-stack, with the upper layers always laid down, with the skin uppermost. These piles are thatched with rinds of the spruce fir, or with tarpaulins, or circular deal frames, which are pressed down with heavy stones. After remaining some time in these piles "to sweat," as the fishermen term it, the fish is spread out again to complete the drying, and then removed into the warehouses.

As the least rain will spoil the fish, if not immediately attended to, nothing can exceed the hurry of men, women, and children, whenever showers come on; they abandon every other engagement, and even run, if on Sunday, out of places of worship, to collect the fish into fagots or piles.

The nature of the cod-fishery is truly precarious. Sometimes the cod is not equally abundant on all parts of the coast, and, in that case, the fishermen have often to go a great distance in quest of them, and in some cases, have to split and salt their fish in the boat. The incessant labour also, which attends the curing, leaves the shoremen scarcely time, during the season, to eat their meals, and allows them little more than four hours' sleep.

The quality of the fish is affected by the least in-

attention or error in curing. If the weather be hot and calm, it is affected with fly-blows, and becomes maggoty; and a few fish of this description may contaminate a whole cargo. If too much salt have been used, the fibres break in drying, and the fish falls to pieces. In this state, it is called salt-burnt, and is unfit for market. It is affected much in the same way when left too long exposed to the sun without turning, and is then called sun-burnt. In damp or wet weather, putrefaction is apt to commence; it then becomes slimy; or by the weather beating on it, when in piles, it sometimes takes a brownish colour, and is called dun-fish, which, although excellent for present use, is not fit for shipping.

Previous to exportation, the fish is again spread out to dry, when it is *culled*, or sorted, into four qualities. First, the merchantable, which are those of the finest colour and quality; second, Madeira, which are nearly equal to the first; third, West India fish, the refuse of all that is sufficiently cured to stand a sea voyage, without putrefying, and which, with the greater part of the Madeira, is sent for sale to the West Indies, to feed the negroes; lastly, the broken fish, dun-fish, or whatever will not keep in warm countries, but which is in general equally good for domestic consumption: mud-fish, or green-fish, is generally understood to be cod-fish, either wholly or partially split and pickled.

The sounds are generally taken from the bones, and the tongues cut out of the heads by women and children, or old men. They are pickled in kegs. The livers of cod are put into vats or puncheons, exposed to the sun, the heat of which is sufficient to render them into oil, which is drained off, and put into casks

for shipping. The remaining blubber is boiled, to obtain the oil it contains.

The livers taken from the number of cod that will, when dry, make up 300 quintals, ought to produce a ton of oil; but sometimes it requires double the quantity to yield a ton, while the livers of 150 quintals have been known to produce a ton.

The shore fishery is the most productive of both merchantable fish and oil. The northern fishery, now enjoyed by France, was carried on by the planters, by proceeding in schooners, with necessary stores and skiffs, to the northern harbours of Newfoundland, much in the same way as the fishery is at present conducted at Labrador, and the schooners sent back with the fish to the respective merchants. The last fish brought home by the vessels being, like that sent in the autumn from Labrador, green, is discharged, on its arrival, into vats, or troughs, attached to the stages, and the salt washed off, when it is thrown on the stage, and piled into a water-horse to drain, before drying. The fish cured in the northerly parts of Labrador is chiefly prepared in the cold dry air.

The western fishery, carried forward on the west coast of Newfoundland, is also, by treaty, abandoned to the French.*

Whenever the planter settles his account, in the

* There is a whale fishery on the south side of the island, carried on by pursuing the whales in boats. The whale fisheries within the Gulf of St. Lawrence will be found described in the second volume. See account of the district of Gaspé. An account of the Halifax South Sea whale fishery, and the herring and mackerel fisheries, will be found in this volume. See the trade and fisheries of Nova Scotia.

fall of the year, with his merchant, and pays the wages of his servants, he prepares for winter, laying in provisions, &c. ; and in the following spring he resumes the same laborious course of employment that occupied him during the preceding year.

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CHAP. X.

FISHERIES OF BRITISH AMERICA. — RISE, PROGRESS, AND PRESENT STATE OF THESE FISHERIES. — FRENCH AND UNITED STATES FISHERIES ON THE COAST OF NEWFOUNDLAND, LABRADOR, AND THE GULF OF ST. LAWRENCE. — VAST IMPORTANCE OF THESE FISHERIES, IF EXCLUSIVELY POSSESSED BY GREAT BRITAIN.

THE cod fishery on the banks of Newfoundland, and along the coasts of North America, commenced a few years after its discovery. In 1517, mention is made of the first English ship which had been at Newfoundland; where, at the same time, fifty Spanish, French, and Portuguese ships were fishing. The French, in 1536, were extensively engaged in this fishery; and we find, that, in 1578 there were employed in it, by Spain one hundred ships, by Portugal fifty ships, and by England only fifteen ships.* The cause of the English having, at this period, so few ships in this branch of trade, was the fishery carried on by them at Iceland. The English ships, however, from this period, were considered the largest and best vessels, and soon became, and continued to be, the admirals. The Biscayans had, about the same time, from twenty to thirty vessels in the whale fishery at Newfoundland; and some English ships in 1593, made a voyage in quest of whales and

* Hakluyt. — Herrera.

morses (walrus) to Cape Breton, where they found the wreck of a Biscay ship, and 800 whale fins. England had, in 1615, at Newfoundland, 250 ships, and the French, Biscayans, and Portuguese, 400 ships.*

From this period, the fisheries carried on by England became of great national consideration. De Witt observes, "that our navy became formidable by the discovery of the inexpressibly rich fishing bank of Newfoundland." In 1626, the French possessed themselves of, and settled at, Placentia; and that nation always viewed the English in those parts with the greatest jealousy; but still the value of these fisheries to England was fully appreciated, as appears by the various acts of Parliament passed, as well as different regulations adopted for their protection.† Ships of war were sent out to convoy the fishing vessels, and to protect them on the coast; and the ships engaged in the fisheries, as far back as 1676, carried about twenty guns, eighteen small boats, and from ninety to a hundred men.

By the treaty of Utrecht, the value and importance of our fisheries at Newfoundland and New England are particularly regarded. The French, however, continued afterwards, and until they were deprived of all their possessions in North America, to annoy the English fishermen; and in 1734, heavy complaints were made by the English, who had established a very extensive and profitable fishing at Canso, in Nova Scotia, against the French, at Louisburg and other places in the neighbourhood.

* *Lex Mercatoria*.

† 2 & 3 Edward VI. Acts passed during the reigns of Elizabeth; and James I. cap. 1. and 2.; 10 & 11 William and Mary.

About this period, the inhabitants of New England had about 1200 tons of shipping employed in the whale fishery; and with their vessels engaged in the cod fishery, they caught upwards of 23,000 quintals of fish, valued at twelve shillings per quintal, which they exported to Spain, and different ports within the Mediterranean, and remitted in payment for English manufactures, 172,000*l*.*

The value of this fishery and the important ship fishery carried on by the English at Newfoundland were, however, of far less magnitude than the French fisheries before the conquest of Cape Breton. By these alone, the navy of France became formidable to all Europe. In 1745, when Louisburg was taken by the forces sent from New England under Sir William Pepperell and a British squadron, the value of one year's fishing in the North American seas, and which depended on France possessing Cape Breton, was stated at 982,000*l*.† In 1748, however, at the treaty of peace, England restored Cape Breton in return for Madras, which the forces of France had conquered two years before; and that nation again enjoyed the full advantages of the fisheries until 1759, when the surrender of Cape Breton, St. John's, and Canada, destroyed French power in North America.

By the third and fourth articles of the treaty of Fontainebleau, signed in 1762, it was agreed, "that the French shall have the liberty of fishing and drying on a part of the coasts of the island of Newfoundland, as specified in the thirteenth article of the

* Anderson on Commerce.

† Sir William Pepperell's Journal.

treaty of Utrecht; and the French may also fish in the Gulf of St. Lawrence, so that they do not exercise the same but at the distance of three leagues from all the coasts belonging to Great Britain, as well those of the continent, as those of the islands in the said gulf. And as to what relates to the fishery out of the said gulf, the French shall exercise the same but at the distance of fifteen leagues from the coasts of Cape Breton. Great Britain cedes to France, to serve as a shelter for the French fishermen, the islands of St. Pierre and Miquelon; and his most Christian Majesty obliges himself, on his royal word, not to fortify the said islands, nor to erect any other buildings thereon, but merely for the convenience of the fishery; and to keep no more than fifty men for their police."

In the history of the fishery, little of importance appears from this period until the commencement of the war with America, France, and Spain, which interrupted and checked the enterprise of the fishing adventurers.

The peace of 1783 gave the French the same advantages as they enjoyed by the treaty of Fontainebleau; and the right of fishing on all the British coasts of America was allowed to the subjects of the United States, in common with those of Great Britain. In restoring to France the islands of St. Pierre and Miquelon, it was contended that they were incapable of being fortified; while it is well known, that both these islands are, in an eminent degree, not only capable of being made impregnable, but that their situation commands also the entrance to the Gulf of St. Lawrence.

After the American revolutionary war, the fish-

eries of British America were prosecuted in Newfoundland with energy and perseverance.

In Nova Scotia and New Brunswick, the herring, mackerel, and Gaspereau fisheries were followed, but only on a limited scale. At Percé and Paspapiac, in the district of Gaspé, the cod fishery was carried on with spirit by two or three houses; and the salmon fishery followed at Restigouch, and at Miramichi. The cod fishery at Arichat, on the island of Madame, was pursued by the Acadian French settled there, who were supplied with provisions, salt, and naval stores, by hardy and economical adventurers from Jersey. The valuable fisheries on the coasts of Nova Scotia, New Brunswick, and Prince Edward Island, were, however, in a great measure overlooked or disregarded.

The last war with France drove the French again from the islands of St. Pierre and Miquelon, and from the fisheries. At the peace of Amiens, they returned again to these islands; but were scarcely established before the war was renewed, and their vessels and property seized by some of our ships on the Halifax station. This was loudly remonstrated against by the French government.

A combination of events occurred during the late war, which raised the fisheries, particularly those of Newfoundland, to an extraordinary height of prosperity.*

* In 1814, the exports were:—

1,200,000 quintals fish, at 40s.	-	-	£2,400,000
20,000 do. core do. at 12s.	-	-	12,000
6,000 tons cod oil, at 32l.	-	-	192,000
Carry forward	-	-	£2,604,000

Great Britain possessed, almost exclusively, the fisheries on the banks and shores of Newfoundland, Labrador, Nova Scotia, New Brunswick, and the Gulf of St. Lawrence; we enjoyed a monopoly of supplying Spain, Portugal, Madeira, different parts of the Mediterranean coasts, the West Indies, and South America, with fish; and our ships not only engrossed the profits of carrying this article of commerce to market, but secured the freights of the commodities which the different countries they went to exported. It was by such eminent advantages as these that the fishery flourished, and that great gains were realised both by the merchants and shipowners.

The conclusion of the war was, however, followed by a depression more ruinous to our fisheries than had ever before been experienced. The causes that arrested their prosperity did not, by any means, arise merely from the changes necessarily produced by a sudden transition from war to peace, but in a great measure from those stipulations in favour of France and America, in our last treaties with those powers.*

	Brought forward	-	£2,604,000
156,000 seal skins, at 5s.	-	-	39,000
4,666 tons seal oil, at 36 <i>l</i> .	-	-	167,976
2,000 tierces salmon, at 5 <i>l</i> .	-	-	10,000
1,685 barrels mackerel, at 30s.	-	-	2,527
4,000 casks caplin, sounds, and tongues	-	-	2,000
2,100 barrels herrings, at 25s.	-	-	2,625
Beavers and other furs	-	-	600
Pine timber and planks	-	-	800
400 puncheons berries	-	-	2,000
	Total	-	£2,831,528

* The French, although we have ceded to them the exclusive right of fishing, are not permitted to become residents between

It is very remarkable, that in all our treaties with France, the fisheries of North America were made a stipulation of extraordinary importance. The ministers of that power, at all times able negotiators, well knew the value of fisheries; not merely in a commercial view, but as essential in providing their navy with that physical strength which would enable them to cope with other nations.

The policy of the French, from their first planting colonies in America, insists particularly on training seamen by means of the fisheries. The nature of the French fishery was always such, that one-third, or at least one-fourth of the men employed in it were "green men," or men who were never before at sea; and by this trade they bred up from 4000 to 6000 seamen annually.

Those who negotiated on the part of Great Britain could not possibly have understood the eminent political and commercial value of the boons thus unnecessarily conceded to France and America.

With France the case was widely different. Every Frenchman acquainted with the history of his country, knew well that the sun of their naval splendour set on the day that Louisburg, the emporium of their fisheries, was taken. Neither were the Americans so ignorant of the rich treasures which abounded on the coasts of British America, as to allow the favourable

Cape Ray and Cape John; and, strange to say, we have, in our excess of kindness, agreed that no British subject shall settle along that coast. When the Americans asked our permission to fish on the west coast of Newfoundland, we were under the necessity of saying we could not grant their request, as we had no right to fish there ourselves. See Chitty's Law of Commerce, for the treaty of 1816, and convention of 1818.

moment for obtaining a participation in the fisheries to escape.

France now (1832) employs about 325 vessels in her fisheries on the British American banks and coasts, and 14,000 sea-going fishermen, who, by treaty, are not allowed to become residents. The French ships are from 100 to 400 tons burden, carrying from 40 to 120 men each to and from the fisheries. These men, by experience alone, must become sailors. The French vessels are principally fitted out at the ports of St. Malo, Bourdeaux, Brest, Marseilles, Dieppe, Granville, &c. Many small shallops also cross from France to the fishery station of St. Pierre.

Some of the French ships make two voyages to the banks of Newfoundland, carrying the fish back to France to be cured. Others make one voyage to the banks, and when they complete a cargo, proceed with it to St. Pierre, on the coast of Newfoundland, where they cure the fish. The principal part of the crews are, in the meantime, employed fishing along the shores in boats; and the fish caught by them makes up the deficiency in weight and bulk, occasioned by drying the cargo caught on the banks. Sometimes these ships, if their cargoes are not complete, stop, on their return from the coast, to catch fish on the banks, which they carry in a wet, or green state to France.

In ceding to France the right of fishing on the shores of Newfoundland from Cape John to Cape Ray, with the islands of St. Pierre and Miquelon, we not only gave that government a nursery for training men for the French navy, but British subjects were not even permitted to fish on their former resorts; and when the merchants of St. John's, in 1831,

sent a schooner to the western coast to establish the privilege of fishing there, a French ship of war immediately drove away this British fishing vessel from a British shore.

Agreeably to the policy acted on at all times by the French, bounties were, immediately after the treaty, granted to encourage and support the French Newfoundland fisheries. These bounties, if the fish be exported to meet us in foreign markets, are about equal to the expense of catching and curing, and which, if imported into France, is sufficient to protect against loss. No encouragement, however, is given, but with the proviso of training seamen.

In consequence of these fisheries being now so firmly established, the bounties are somewhat reduced, and are at present understood to be—for shipping so employed, 24 francs, or 20s. per ton; for every green man, that is, a man who never was before at sea, seventy-five francs; on fish carried direct to other parts of Europe, or carried first to France, and thence to other parts of Europe, six francs per quintal; and if carried to the West Indies on board of French ships employed in the fisheries, twelve francs per quintal.* It is also worth observing, that strict naval discipline is not lost sight of on board of the fishing vessels.

The French have other advantages besides bounties, which the British fishermen do not possess. They obtain all their articles of outfit cheaper; the wages

* The above scale is somewhat higher than the present rate; and, whether from jealousy or not, I found the French merchants, and those gentlemen from whom I had hoped to obtain official information, more cautious on the subject of the cod fishery than on any other. I certainly cannot blame them.

of labour are, with them, lower; and they have also, as well as having the markets of the world open to them, a great home market.*

St. Pierre Island, where the governor resides, is also made a *depôt* for French manufactures, which are sent into our colonies. The ships of war sent from France to protect their fisheries and all the other vessels engaged in the trade, make the harbour of this island their rendezvous. That the political value of the Newfoundland fisheries to France is of immense consequence is evident, when we consider the number of seamen necessary to man her present navy, and the great number of ships of war now in progress of building in her dock-yards.

By the convention of 1818, between Great Britain and the United States, the former concedes to the latter the privilege of fishing along all our coasts and harbours, within three marine miles of the shore, (an indefinite distance,) and of curing fish in such harbours

* The produce of the French fishery on the banks and coasts of Newfoundland, I found, while in France, partially confounded with that brought by about seventy vessels from the banks of Iceland, or in part, as I have been informed, from the northern shores of Labrador, near Hudson's Strait.

The whole produce of green and dried cod-fish brought to France, was last year 309,000 quintals. Of which 95,000 were re-exported to Algiers, Isle Bourbon, and the French West Indies.

The quantity shipped direct to the French colonies,		
appears to have been about	-	29,000
And to foreign countries in Europe	-	16,000
To which add	-	309,000

Making the whole produce about - 354,000
value, about 300,000*l.* sterling; to protect which the government
is at an expense of more than 50,000*l.*

and bays as are uninhabited, or, if inhabited, with the consent of the inhabitants. The expert and industrious Americans, ever fertile in expedients, and always alert in the pursuit of gain, know well how to take advantage of so profitable a concession.

From the sea-coasts of Newfoundland assigned to France, which comprehend half the shores of the island, and the best fishing grounds, our fishermen have been expelled, and driven to the necessity of resorting from two to four hundred miles farther north, to the coast of Labrador, where they are again met by swarms of Americans. The convention of 1818 concedes also the privilege, in common with British subjects, to fish along the shores of Newfoundland yielded to France; and it is said that when the French endeavoured to prevent the Americans from fishing within these limits, that the latter persisted, under protection of their ships of war, until the French gave up the contest.

By particular circumstances, and the better to accomplish their object, the Americans are known to be guided by one feeling, to act more in union, on arriving on the fishing coasts. They frequently occupy the whole of the best fishing banks, to the exclusion of our fishermen; and their aggressions have gone so far, as to drive by force our vessels and boats from their stations and tear down the British flag in the harbours, hoisting in its place that of the United States. They frequently fish by means of seines, which they spread across the best places along the shores; and thus prevent the industry and success of the British fishermen. The crew of an American vessel, which arrived three years ago on the coast of Labrador, anchored opposite a

British settlement, cut the salmon net of the inhabitants, set their own in its stead, and threatened to shoot any one who approached it.*

In order to take every advantage of the latitude granted them, the American vessels, during the day, when they apprehend the appearance of any of his Majesty's cruisers, anchor three miles from the shore; but as soon as night conceals their movements, they run under the lee of the land, and set their nets for herring and mackerel. Another consequence, as our fishermen contend, of the Americans being permitted to fish so near the shore, is, that the offal which they throw overboard has the effect of driving the fish from the nearest banks, which renders the catch more difficult and distant.

The net fishing, which, by the limits of three miles, was intended to be secured to our people, the Americans still persevere in prosecuting, which interferes with the very boat fishery of the poor men settled along the shore.

A contraband trade is also carried on by the American fishing vessels, along different parts of the coast. The right of entering the harbours of our colonies for wood and water, affords an opportunity for smuggling; at which there is not in the world a people more expert than Americans engaged in a

* Similar excesses no doubt occur whenever contending interests clash, either on fishing stations, timber districts, or fur countries, in which government have little or no control.

In making these remarks, I do not mean, nor should it be understood, that the American fishermen act in the way I describe, by direction, or immediate countenance, of their government. The fishermen of all countries, as far as I have been able to ascertain, wherever their numbers predominate, conduct themselves towards the weaker party in the most overbearing and wanton manner.

contraband trade. At the Magdalen Islands, and in many parts within the Gulf of St. Lawrence, at Fox Island, and other parts of Nova Scotia, and along the coasts of New Brunswick, an illicit trade is extensively persevered in. Rum, molasses, French and East India goods, and American manufactures, are bartered generally for the best fish, and often sold for specie. The French also sell brandy, wine, and French manufactures, for the best fish, to our fishermen. The consequence of this smuggling trade is, not merely the defrauding of his Majesty's revenue, but the very fish thus sold to the Americans and French, is legally and honestly due, and ought to be paid, to the British merchant, who, in the first instance, supplies the fishermen with clothes, provisions, salt, and all kinds of fishing tackle. There are, indeed, such a multiplicity of courses pursued to supplant us in these fisheries, particularly by the Americans, that it would be quite superfluous to recapitulate more than I have stated.

In the shape of bounties, they are not encouraged by their government; but as they can conduct their fisheries, as regards expense and outfit, cheaper than we do, and on a different principle, they are enabled to bring their fish to market at less cost than British subjects.

The Americans follow two or more modes of fitting out for the fisheries. The first is accomplished by six or seven farmers, or their sons, building a schooner during winter, which they man themselves (as all the Americans on the sea-coast are more or less seamen as well as farmers); and, after fitting the vessel with necessary stores, they proceed to the banks, Gulf of St. Lawrence, or Labrador, and, loading their vessel with fish, make a voyage between spring and

harvest. The proceeds they divide, after paying any balance they may owe for outfit. They remain at home to assist in gathering their crops, and proceed again for another cargo, which is salted down, and not afterwards dried: this is termed mud-fish, and kept for home consumption. The other plan is, when a merchant, or any other, owning a vessel, lets her to ten or fifteen men on shares. He finds the vessel and nets. The men pay for all the provisions, hooks and lines, and for the salt necessary to cure their proportion of the fish. One of the number is acknowledged master; but he has to catch fish as well as the others, and receives only about twenty shillings per month for navigating the vessel: the crew have five-eighths of the fish caught, and the owners three-eighths of the whole.

The first spring voyage is made to the banks; the second either to the banks, Gulf of St. Lawrence, or the coast of Labrador; the third, or fall voyage, is again to the banks; and a fourth, or second fall voyage, is also made, sometimes, to the banks.

In these fisheries the Americans have annually engaged from 1500 to 2000 schooners, of 90 to 130 tons, employing about 20,000 seamen. Many of these vessels are employed again during winter in the coasting trade, or in carrying fish and other produce to South America and the West Indies.

The exports of cod-fish from the United States, wholly caught in the British American seas, average nearly 500,000 quintals annually; and the home consumption of the Americans is equal to 1,350,000 quintals.* Of the whole quantity about 1,500,000

* See Reports of the American Congress, from 1825 to 1832.

quintals are the produce of the British seas ; the remainder is caught on their own shores. About 3200 tuns of oil are produced from the livers of the cod, and about 200 from pelts of seals, caught on the coasts of British America. The Americans have also several large schooners in the whale fishery within the Gulf of St. Lawrence.

To the depreciation of the value of fish in foreign markets, to the privileges thus granted the French and Americans, and in a particular degree to the limited demand for fish oils in the home market, may be attributed nearly altogether the depressed condition of the British American fisheries. The heavy duties exacted in Spain, Portugal, and Italy, occasion, no doubt, less demand for fish in those countries than formerly. In Spain, the duty is equal to from 12*s.* 6*d.* to 14*s.* per quintal ; in Italy, 8*s.* ; in Portugal and Brazil, 15*s.* per cwt., valuing the fish at eight milrees per barrel of 128 lbs.

The shore, or boat fishery, to which the fishermen, particularly in Newfoundland, now confine themselves, is not, strictly speaking, a nursery for seamen. The bank fishery, in which we are supplanted by the French and Americans, was always a school of hardy training for rearing sailors ; and the eight or ten English vessels that now frequent the banks, are not of more value than one of the large French ships.

In the event of a war with either of those powers, the effect would be, in respect to their fishermen, that, by being thrown out of peaceable employment, they would at once enter the navies of their respective countries.

About 8000 of the inhabitants of Newfoundland can only be justly considered sea-going men. These

are principally the crews of the sealing vessels, who go also in summer to Labrador. The seal fishery is increasing fast, and deserves every encouragement. The men employed in the schooners fitted out for the Labrador fishery, from Nova Scotia and New Brunswick, may also be considered regular sea-going men.

The provincial governments of Nova Scotia and New Brunswick have extended every possible encouragement to the fisheries, in the shape of bounties; but, as these are drawn from the colonial revenues, it is disposing of a portion of those funds, to enable their fishermen to compete with their rivals, which would be more judiciously expended on internal improvements. Yet it is considered necessary to grant these bounties, to protect the fishing adventurers from ruin. The Newfoundland fishermen receive no encouragement of this kind, nor can the condition and circumstances of the colony afford any.

The only encouragement that can now be judiciously extended to these fisheries is, to allow those who conduct them to import whatever they require without restriction. As respects Newfoundland, in particular, there is not an individual living on the island, who is not either immediately or indirectly connected with the fisheries.

CHAP. XI.

ENQUIRY RELATIVE TO THE ABORIGINES OF NEWFOUNDLAND.
— NATIVES, CALLED RED INDIANS, SEEN BY CABOT, CARTIER,
AND OTHERS. — WHITBOURNE'S NARRATIVE. — SCOTT'S AD-
VENTURE. — GOVERNOR MONTAGUE AND CAPTAIN DUFF'S
PROCLAMATIONS RESPECTING THEM. — FEMALE RED INDIAN
BROUGHT TO ST. JOHN'S, AND SENT BACK WITH PRESENTS.
— LIEUTENANT SPRATT'S SEARCH. — CAPTAIN BUCHAN SENT
BY GOVERNMENT IN SEARCH OF THEM. — MR. CORMACK'S
EXPEDITION, AND RESULT.

THE people who inhabited Newfoundland, when first discovered, were a tribe of savages, usually called Red Indians, who have never had any reciprocal intercourse, or at least none that was properly understood, with Europeans. * We know little of their history; and they will likely pass away from the face of the earth, if they be not even now extinct, without having known either the benefits or evils of civilisation, to be remembered only in history as a tribe that existed in the most rude and simple state of society, and hunted alike by Europeans and all the savage nations of America.

That they were originally a more savage, cruel, and treacherous race than the other American tribes, is not to be credited; and their vindictive, revengeful spirit, and their unconquerable aversion to become familiar with Europeans, may be very naturally accounted for.

* Note, page 256.

When Cabot discovered Newfoundland, he saw the savages, "who were painted with red ochre, and covered with skins," Cartier in 1534, saw the Red Indians, whom he describes "as of good size, wearing their hair in a bunch on the top of their head, and adorned with feathers." In 1574, Martin Fro-bisher, having been driven by the ice on the coast of Newfoundland, induced some of the natives to come on board; and with one of them he sent five sailors on shore, whom he never saw again. On this account he seized one of the Indians, who died shortly after arriving in England. The following extracts from Whitbourne's book, published in 1620, throw some light on what the Red Indians were at that period:—

"They believed that they were created from arrows stuck in the ground by the Good Spirit; and that the dead went into a far country to make merry with their friends." He says, "The poor infidel natives of Newfoundland, at that time, were ingenious, and apt, by a moderate and discreet government, to become obedient. Many of them join the French and Biscayans on the northern coast, and work hard for them, about fish, whales, &c., for some bread, or trifling trinkets. A party of them was surprised near Trinity Bay by a fishing crew; they left their canoes, a quantity of red ochre, bows, arrows, &c.; their two kettles, made of spruce (more probably birch) rind, were on the fire, with twelve ducks in each."

Captain Hayes also, who was second in command under Sir Humphrey Gilbert, says, "In the southern parts we found no inhabitants, which, by all likelihood, have abandoned these coasts, the same being

frequented by Christians. But, in the north, are savages, altogether harmless."

For 130 years after, we can trace nothing of the history of the tribe, but that they were frequently shot by the northern fishermen and furriers, and that they were in the habit of coming suddenly from the unfrequented parts, and stealing nets, iron, or whatever they could lay their hands on. Indeed, we find all accounts respecting them agree in describing the Europeans and Red Indians as retaliating on each other, whenever opportunity offered; and it is difficult to say which were the most revengeful, except by making proper allowance for moral instruction and civilisation, in which case we must certainly decide against the Europeans.

The governors made several attempts to establish an intercourse with the Red Indians, or, as they named themselves, Bœothics; but the deep feeling of injury which they entertained, and the inexorable, unforgiving spirit of savages, were not easily to be removed or conquered. About 1750, one Scott, a ship-master, with some others, went from St. John's to the Bay of Exploits, where they built a place of residence, much in the manner of a fort. Some days afterwards a party of Indians appeared, and halted near the place. Scott proceeded unarmed to them, contrary to the advice of his people, shook hands with them, and mixed among them. An old man, who pretended friendship, put his arms round Scott's neck, when another immediately stabbed him in the back. A horrible war-whoop or yell immediately resounded; a shower of arrows fell upon the English,

which killed five of them, and the rest fled to their vessel, carrying off one of those who had been killed, with several arrows sticking in his body.

From this period, until the beginning of the present century, there appears to have been no farther intercourse with the Bœothics; but that they continued to be hunted and shot like foxes, by the northern furriers and fishermen, is well known,—the only reason for such unjustifiable barbarity being, that the Bœothics came from their lurking places, and robbed the fishing-nets. We need not, therefore, be surprised at the unbending spirit of the Bœothics; and as to their plundering the fishing-nets, they were undoubtedly compelled by hunger to do so, at the risk of being shot.

Captain Duff, Montague, and other governors, issued proclamations, which were intended to protect the Bœothics; but little attention seems to have been paid by the settlers in the northern harbours, or by the furriers, to any legal authority, and the destruction of the Red Indians appeared to afford them as much sport as hunting beavers.

In 1803, a female Red Indian, in consequence of a reward offered by the governor, Admiral Lord Gambier, was taken by a fisherman, who surprised her while paddling her canoe towards a small island in quest of birds' eggs. He carried her to St. John's, where she was taken to the governor's, and kindly treated. She admired the epaulets of the officers more than any thing she saw; and although presents, and indeed whatever she asked for, were given her, she would never let her fur dress go out of her hands. She was afterwards sent back in charge of the man

who made her a captive ; but what became of her is not known. It is not likely she ever joined her people.*

It was hoped that the treatment she experienced would have induced some of her tribe to open an intercourse with the English ; but this was doubtful, as they might have looked upon it as a plan to ensnare them.

In 1809, government sent a vessel to Exploits Bay, in order, if possible, to meet the Indians, and to open a friendly communication with them. Lieutenant Spratt, who commanded the vessel, had with him a painting, representing the officers of the royal navy shaking hands with an Indian chief, a party of sailors laying parcels of goods at his feet, Indians, men and women, presenting furs to the officers, an European and Indian mother looking at their respective children of the same age, and a sailor courting an Indian girl. This expedition did not, however, meet with any of the tribe.

* In consequence of Lieutenant Chapell having stated that this woman was murdered by the man who carried her back, I wrote Mr. Cormack on the subject, who informs me, " The old Red Indian woman whom you enquire about, was sent from St. John's, in Admiral Gambier's time, with presents from the whites, to the woods from whence she came. Cull, the man who was intrusted with her and the presents, asked me, in 1827, ' if there was any means of getting at that lying fellow who wrote a book, and said, that he (Cull) killed the old woman when he got her into the country, and took her load of presents.' He then consulted me about proceeding against Chapell for the libel he wrote. I take it for granted that the old woman never joined her tribe, whatever became of her ; but if the man who charged Cull with her murder ever comes within the reach of Cull's gun, (and a long duck-gun it is, that cost 7*l.* at Fogo,) he is as dead as any of the Red Indians that Cull has often shot."

In 1816, Captain Buchan, R.N., the present high sheriff of Newfoundland, proceeded, in his Majesty's schooner *Adonis*, to the river Exploits, with orders, if possible, to open an intercourse with the *Bœothics*. The *Adonis*, soon after her arrival in Exploits Bay, was frost bound for the winter in ice; and on the 12th January, Captain Buchan commenced his journey along the banks of the river, accompanied by twenty-four of his crew, and three guides, dragging with them on *haned sledges*, arms, provisions, and presents for the Indians.

After a difficult route for about 125 miles over land and ice, the expedition reached the Red Indian or Exploits Lake on the 23d; and, leaving half the party to guard the stores, on the following morning, Captain Buchan surprised the Indians, with whom a friendly intercourse was established.

The following extracts from Captain Buchan's journal will unfold the sequel:—

"24th.—Wind north-east, and intensely cold. We fell in with a quantity of venison in carcasses and quarters, close to which was a path into the wood. Conjecturing that the habitations of the Indians were not far off, we advanced in, and found the remains of one; the party complained much of the cold, and occasionally sheltered themselves under the lee of projecting points."—"With the first glimpse of morn we reached the wished-for track, which led us along the western shore of the lake to the north-east, up to the point on which stood an old wigwam; from thence it struck across to the shore we had left. As the day opened, it was requisite to push forward with activity, to prevent being seen, and to surprise the natives, if possible, while asleep. Canoes were soon

descried, and shortly after wigwams, two close to each other, and a third about a hundred yards from the former. Having examined the arms, and charged my men to be prompt in executing such orders as might be given, at the same time I strictly ordered them to avoid, and to be especially guarded in their behaviour towards the women.

“The bank was then ascended with great alacrity and silence; the party being formed into three divisions, the three wigwams were at once secured: we called to the people within, but received no answer; the skins that covered the entrance were then removed, and we beheld men, women, and children lying in the utmost consternation; they remained absolutely for some minutes without motion or utterance. My first object was now to remove their fears and inspire confidence in us, which we soon accomplished by shaking hands, and showing every kindly disposition. They kindled a fire, and presented us with venison steaks and fat run into a solid cake, which they used with lean meat.

“Every thing promised the utmost cordiality,—knives, handkerchiefs, and other articles were presented them, and in return they offered us skins. I had to regret our ignorance of their language, and that the presents were at the distance of at least twelve miles. The want of these occasioned me much embarrassment. I used every endeavour to make them understand my great desire that some of them would accompany us to the place where our baggage was, and assist in bringing up such things as we wore, which at last they seemed perfectly to comprehend. We had spent three hours and a half in conciliatory endeavours, and every appearance of the

greatest amity subsisted between us; and, considering a longer delay useless without the means of convincing them further of our friendship, we indicated our intention of speedily returning, on which four of them signified that they would accompany us.

"James Butler, carpenter, and Thomas Boathland, private of marines, requested to be left behind, in order to repair their snow shoes; and such was the confidence placed by my people in the natives, that most of the party wished to be the individuals to remain among them. I was induced to comply with the first request from a motive of showing the natives a mutual confidence, and cautioning them to observe the utmost regularity.

"Having myself shaken hands with all the natives, and expressed, in the best way I could, my intention to be with them the following morning, we set out; and they expressed their satisfaction, by signs, that two of us were going to remain among them. On reaching the river head, two of the Indians struck off to our last night's resting place; one of them, I considered to be their chief, finding nothing here, he directed two out of the four to continue on with us; they proceeded with cheerfulness, though at times they seemed to mistrust us. The banks of the river being narrow and winding, occasioned, at times, a considerable distance between me and the Indians, and one of them, having loitered behind, took the opportunity, on our doubling a point, to run off with great speed, calling out to his comrade to follow.

"This incident I considered to be unfortunate, as we were now nearly in sight of our baggage. I thought it not improbable but that he had seen the

smoke, and taken alarm. Certainly no act of any of my people could have given rise to such conduct; he had, however, evidently some suspicions, as he had frequently come up looking steadily in my face, as if to read my intentions. I had been most scrupulous in avoiding every action and gesture that might cause the least distrust. In order to try the disposition of the remaining Indian, he was made to understand that he was at liberty to go if he chose, but he showed not the least wish of this kind.

“At 3 P.M. we joined the rest of our party, when the Indian seemed startled by seeing so many more men; but this was but of momentary duration, for he soon became pleased with all he saw. I made him a few presents, and showed him the articles that were to be taken up for his countrymen, with which he appeared much satisfied, and regaled himself with beer and broiled venison. A pair of trowsers and vamps being made out of a blanket, and a flannel shirt presented to him, he put them on with sensible pleasure, carefully avoiding any indecency; being under no restraint, he occasionally went out, and he expressed a strong desire for canvass, pointing to a studding sail which covered us on one side, and he laid down by my side for the night. Still my mind was somewhat disturbed lest the native Indians, on the return of their comrade that had deserted us, might be induced from his misrepresentation, and from fear, to have quitted their wigwams to observe my motions; but I was willing to suppress my alarm for the safety of our men left with them, judging that they would not be inclined to commit any violence, particularly until they should see whether we returned and brought back their companion. I

was, moreover, satisfied that the conduct of my men would not give occasion for animosity.

" 25th. — Wind N.N.E. and boisterous, with sleet. On coming up to the river head, we observed the tracks of three men crossing the frozen lake. The violence of the sleet and drift rendered it laborious to get on, and the air was so thick at times that the party could frequently not discern each other. When we had reached within a mile of the wigwams, the Indian, who walked sometimes on before, and at others by my side, pointed out an arrow sticking in the ice ; we also perceived the recent track of a sledge. At 2 P. M. we arrived at the wigwams, when my apprehensions were unfortunately verified ; they were left in a state of confusion, and little remaining in them but some deer skins. A quantity of venison packs had been conveyed a little way off, and deposited in the snow.

" Having directed the fire to be removed from the wigwams to one more commodious, the Indian appeared terrified, and used his utmost endeavours to prevent its being carried out ; either apprehending that we were going to destroy the wigwams and canoes (of which latter there were six), or that fire was to be kindled for his destruction. For some time he anxiously peeped through the crevices, for he was now no longer at liberty, but a prisoner.

" Perplexed how to act, and the evening drawing on, anxiety for the two marines determined me to let the Indian go, trusting that his appearance and recital of our behaviour would not only be the means of our men's liberation, but also that the natives would return with a favourable impression. Giving him, therefore, several articles, I endeavoured to make him

understand that I wished his party to return, and intimated by signs that I hoped our people would not be ill-treated. He smiled and remained by us ; put the wigwams in order, and several times looked to the west side of the lake, and pointed.

" Each wigwam had a quantity of deer's dry leg bones, ranged on poles, in all three hundred ; having used the marrow of some of those opposite that we occupied, the Indian replaced them with an equal number from one of the others, signifying that those were his. He pointed out a red staff, and showed that it belonged to the person that wore the long cap, the same that I had taken to be the chief ; the length of this badge was nearly six feet.

" The day having closed in with high wind, sleet, and rain, I saw the necessity of being prepared for any attack that might be made on us. The wigwam being of a circular form, a division of the party was stationed on each side of the entrance. The rustling of the trees, and snow falling, would have made it easy for an enemy to advance close without being heard. I had made an exchange with the Indian for his bow and arrows, and at eleven laid down to rest ; but had not been asleep more than ten minutes, when I was aroused by a dreadful scream and exclamation of " O Lord !" muttered by Matthew Hughster ; starting up at that instant in his sleep, the Indian gave a horrid yell, and a musket was instantly discharged. I could not at this moment but admire the promptness of the watch, with their arms presented and their swords drawn. This incident, which had nearly proved fatal, was occasioned by John Guienne, a foreigner, going out ; he had mentioned it to the watch ; in coming in again, the

skin covering of the doorway made a rustling noise ; Thomas Taylor, roused by the shriek, fired direct against the entrance ; and had not Hughster providentially fallen against him at the moment, which moved the piece from its intended direction, Guienne must inevitably have lost his life. The rest of the night was spent in making covers of deer skins for the locks of the arms.

" 26th. — Wind E.N.E. blowing strong, with sleet and piercing weather. As soon as it was daylight the crew were put in motion, and placing an equal number of blankets, shirts, and tin pots in each wigwam, I gave the Indian to understand that these articles were for the individuals residing in them ; some more presents were given to him, as also some articles attached to the red staff, all of which he seemed to comprehend. At 7 A. M. we left the place, intending to return again on Monday following : seeing the Indian come on, I signified my wish for him to go back ; he, however, continued with us, sometimes running on a little before in a zig-zag direction, keeping his eyes on the ice as having a trace to guide him, and once pointed to the west and laughed. Being now about two thirds of a mile further from the wigwam, he edged in suddenly, and for an instant halted ; then set off at full speed. We observed that for an instant he stopped to look at something lying on the ice ; but in another instant we lost sight of him in the haze. On coming up, we recognised with horror the dead bodies of our two unfortunate companions, lying about a hundred yards apart : that of the corporal was pierced by an arrow in the back, and three arrows had entered the other : they were laid out straight, with their feet towards the

river, and back upwards, and no vestige of garments left. Several broken arrows were lying about, and a quantity of bread, which must have been emptied out of the knapsacks; very little blood was visible. This melancholy event naturally much affected all the party, but these feelings soon gave way to sensations of revenge. Although I was fully aware of the possibility of finding out the route they had taken, yet prudence called on me to adopt another line of conduct. That all our movements had been watched I had no doubt; and my mind became seriously alarmed for the safety of those who had been left with the sledges. I conceived it therefore of the utmost consequence to lose not a moment in joining our party. Having therefore given to the people some little refreshment, I caused them to be formed into a line of march, those having fire-arms being in the front and rear; those with cutlasses remaining in the centre. All were charged to keep as close together as circumstances would permit." Captain Buchan in a few hours joined the remainder of his party, whom he found safe with the sledges, although two of them had imprudently wandered away during his absence, and after a most fatiguing journey of four days, reached the Adonis. Such was the unhappy result of this hazardous expedition.*

* Mr. Cormack was afterwards informed by the captive Red Indian woman, Shanandithit, that there were other causes for the murder of the marines. All of the tribe that had remained were then at the Grand Lake, in different encampments. A suspicion spread among them that Captain Buchan had gone down to bring up a party of men from the sea coast to make all the Bœothics prisoners. They accordingly determined on breaking up their encampments, and to alarm and join the rest of their tribe, who

Nothing further was known of this extraordinary tribe, until the winter of 1819, when a party of furriers proceeded up to the Red Indian Lake, where they met two men and a woman on the ice. They made a prisoner of the woman; but her husband, a noble looking fellow about six feet high, became desperate; and seeming determined to rescue her single-handed, was most wantonly shot by the brutal party, who also shot the other man. They carried off the woman, whom they called Mary March, being the name of the month in which they made her a captive. She was brought to St. John's, and, in the following winter, was sent back to the river Exploits, in charge of Captain Buchan. She died on board his vessel, at the mouth of the river; but he carried her body up to the lake, where he left it in a coffin, in a place where he knew her tribe would likely find it. It appears that a party of them was encamped at this time near the banks of the river, who observed Captain Buchan on the ice, and afterwards carried away the body of Mary March, which they deposited alongside of that of her husband.*

The last time any of the Bœothics were seen, was during the winter of 1823, on the ice, at New Bay, an arm of Notre Dame Bay. Three of the women gave themselves up, in a starving condition, to a party of furriers; one of them, Shanandithit, was

were encamped on the western side of the lake. To prevent their proceedings being known, they decapitated the marines. In the first edition of this work, a few errors, from misrepresentation to me, crept into the account of Captain Buchan's expedition, which I feel obliged to that gentleman for pointing out before the present edition was prepared for the press.

* See Mr. Cormack's Narrative hereafter.

afterwards brought to St. John's, through the humanity of the members of the Bœothic Institution. A few days before these women surrendered themselves, and not far distant, two English furriers shot a man and woman of the tribe, who appeared to approach soliciting food. The man was first killed; and the woman, in despair, remained calmly to be fired at, when she was also shot through the back and chest, and immediately expired. Mr. Cormack was told this by the white barbarian who shot her.

Such was the fate of this tribe; and to the enterprise and philanthropy of Mr. Cormack, we owe all that remains to be told of them. That gentleman kindly furnished me with a brief narrative of his last expedition, as contained in the statement laid by him, on his return to St. John's, before the Bœothic Institution. It is so very interesting, and, at the same time, sufficiently brief, to justify my transcribing it in full. Mr. Cormack, in company with the Honourable Augustus Wallet Desbarres, one of the judges of the Supreme Court of Newfoundland, proceeded in a government vessel to Twillingate, the most northerly settlement. Before Mr. Cormack's final departure from this place, a numerous meeting of the friends of the expedition was held. On this occasion, Mr. Cormack, after the object of the expedition had been eulogised by Judge Desbarres, addressed those around him, and said, among other matters, — "Is there no honest pride in him who protects man from the shafts of injustice? Nay, is there not an inward monitor, approving of all our acts which shall have the tendency to lessen crime and prevent murder? We now stand on the nearest part of the New World to Europe, of Newfoundland to Britain; and, at this day, and on

this sacred spot, do we form the first assembly that has ever yet collected together to consider the condition of the invaded and ill-treated first occupiers of this country. Britons have trespassed here, to be a blight and a scourge to a portion of the human race; under their, in other respects, protecting power, a defenceless, and once independent tribe of men, have been nearly extirpated from the face of the earth, scarcely causing an enquiry how or why. Near this spot, man is known to remain in all his primitive rudeness, clothed in skins, and armed only with a bow and arrow, by which to gain his subsistence, and to repel the attacks of his reckless and lawless foes.

“ It would appear from what we can glean from tradition, that about a century and a half ago this tribe was numerous and powerful, like its neighbours, the Micmacs. Both tribes were then on friendly terms. A misunderstanding with the French, who then held the sway in those parts, led, in the result, to hostilities between them; and the sequel of the tradition runs as follows :—

“ The European authorities, who, we may suppose, were not over scrupulous in dealing out equity here in those days, offered a reward for the persons or heads of certain of the Red Indians. Some of the Micmacs were tempted by the reward, and took off the heads of two of them. Before the heads were delivered to obtain the reward, they were by accident discovered concealed in the canoe which was to convey them, and recognised by some of the Red Indians as those of their friends. The Red Indians gave no intimation of the discovery to the perpetrators of the unprovoked outrage, but consulted among

themselves, and determined on having revenge. They invited the Micmacs to a feast, and arranged their guests in such order, that every Bœothic had a Micmac by his side ; at a preconcerted signal, every Bœothic slew his guest. They then retired quickly from those parts bordering on the Micmac country. War of course ensued. Fire-arms were little known to the Indians at this time, but they soon came into more general use among such tribes as continued to hold intercourse with Europeans. This circumstance gave the Micmacs an undisputed ascendancy over the Bœothics, who were forced to betake themselves to the recesses of the interior, and other parts of the island, alarmed, as well they might be, at every report of the fire-lock.

“ Since that day, European weapons have been directed from every quarter (and in later times, too often) at the open breasts and unstrung bows of the unoffending Bœothics. Sometimes these unsullied people of the chase have been destroyed wantonly, because they have been thought more fleet and more evasive than men ought to be. At other times, at the sight of them, the terror of the ignorant European has goaded him on to murder the innocent, at the bare mention of which civilisation ought to weep. Incessant and ruthless persecution, continued for many generations, has given these silvan people an utter distrust and abhorrence of the very signs of civilisation. Shanandithit, the surviving female of those who were captured four years ago by some fishermen, will not now return to her tribe, for fear they should put her to death ; a proof of the estimation in which we are held by that persecuted people.

“ The situation of the unfortunate Bœothics car-

ries with it our warmest sympathy, and loudly calls on us all to do something for the sake of humanity. For my own satisfaction, I have, for a time, released myself from all other avocations, and am here now on my way to visit that part of the country which the surviving remnant of the tribe have of late years frequented, to endeavour to force a friendly interview with some of them, before they are entirely annihilated; but it will most probably require many such interviews, and some years, to reconcile them to the approaches of civilised man.”*

Mr. Cormack proceeded from Twillingate, by sea, to the Bay of Exploits, and he gives us the narrative of his journey in a statement laid before the Bœothic Institution at St. John's. “Having,” says he, “so recently returned, I will now only lay before you a brief outline of my expedition in search of the Bœothics, or Red Indians, confining my remarks exclusively to its primary object.

“My party consisted of three Indians, whom I procured from among the other tribes; the first, an intelligent and able man of the Abenakee tribe, from Canada; an elderly mountaineer from Labrador; and an adventurous young Micmac, a native of the island, together with myself. It was difficult to obtain men fit for the purpose; and the trouble attendant on this, prevented my entering on the expedition a month earlier in the season. It was my intention to have commenced our search at White Bay, which is nearer the northern extremity of the island than where we

* At this meeting a society was formed, called the Bœothic Institution, the primary object of which was to discover and open a friendly intercourse with the Red Indians, or Bœothics.

did; but the weather not permitting to carry my party thither by water, after several days' delay, I unwillingly changed my line of route.

"On the 31st October, 1827, we entered the country at the mouth of the River Exploits, on the north side, at the branch called the Northern Arm; we took a north-westerly direction, which led us to Hall's Bay, through an almost uninterrupted forest, and over a hilly country, in eight days. This tract includes the interior country, extending from New Bay, Badger Bay, Seal Bay, &c., being minor bays branching from Notre Dame Bay, and well known to have been heretofore always the summer residences of the Red Indians.

"On the fourth day after our departure, at the east end of Badger Bay, Great Lake, at a portage known by the name of the Indian Path, we found traces made by the Red Indians, evidently in the spring or summer of the preceding year. Their party had had two canoes; and here was a canoe rest, on which the daubs of red ochre, and the roots of trees, used to fasten or tie it together, appeared fresh. A canoe rest is simply a few beams, supported horizontally, about five feet from the ground, by perpendicular posts. A party with two canoes, when descending from the interior to the sea-coast, through such a part of the country as this, where there are troublesome portages, leave one canoe resting, bottom up, on this kind of frame, to protect it from injury by the weather, until their return. Among other things which lay strewed about here, were a spear-shaft, eight feet in length, recently made and ochred, parts of old canoes, fragments of their skin dresses, &c. For some distance around, the trunks of many of the

birch, and of that species of spruce-pine, called here the var, (*pinus balsamifera*,) had been rinded; these people using the inner part of the bark of that kind of tree for food. Some of the cuts in the trees with the axe were evidently made the preceding year. Besides these, we were elated by other encouraging signs. The traces left by the Red Indians are so peculiar, that we were confident those we saw here were made by them.

“This spot has been a favourable place of settlement with these people. It is situated at the commencement of a portage, which forms a communication by a path between the sea-coast at Badger Bay, about eight miles to the north-east, and a chain of lakes extending westerly and southerly from hence, and discharging their surplus waters into the River Exploits, about thirty miles from its mouth. A path also leads from this place to the lakes, near New Bay, to the eastward. Here are the remains of one of their villages, where the vestiges of eight or ten winter mamateeks, or wigwams, each intended to contain from six to eighteen or twenty people, are distinctly seen close together. Besides these, there are the remains of a number of summer wigwams. Every winter wigwam has close by it a small square-mouthed or oblong pit, dug into the earth, about four feet deep, in which to preserve their stores, &c. Some of these pits were lined with birch-rind. We discovered also in this village the remains of a vapour-bath. The method used by the Bœothics to raise the steam was by pouring water on large stones made very hot for the purpose, in the open air, by burning a quantity of wood around them; after this process, the ashes were removed, and a hemispherical frame-

work, closely covered with skins to exclude the external air, was fixed over these stones. The patient then crept in under the skins, taking with him a birch-rind bucket of water, and a small bark dish with which to pour it on the stones, and to enable him to raise the steam at pleasure.

"At Hall's Bay, we got no useful information from the three (and the only) English families settled there; indeed, we could hardly have expected any; for these, and such people, have been the unchecked and ruthless destroyers of the tribe, the remnant of which we were in search of. After sleeping one night in a house, we again struck into the country to the westward.

"In five days we were in the high lands south of White Bay, and in sight of the high lands east of the Bay of Islands, on the west coast of Newfoundland. The country south and west of us was low and flat, consisting of marshes extending southerly more than thirty miles. In this direction lies the famous Red Indian Lake. It was now near the middle of November, and the winter had commenced pretty severely in the interior. The country was everywhere covered with snow, and for some days past we had walked over the small ponds on the ice. The summits of the hills on which we stood had snow on them, in some places many feet deep. The deer were migrating from the rugged and dreary mountains in the north, to the low and mossy ravines, and more woody parts in the south; and we inferred, that if any of the Red Indians had been at White Bay during the past summer, they might at that time be stationed about the borders of the low tract of country before us, at the deer-passes, or employed somewhere else in the in-

terior, killing deer for winter provisions. At these passes—which are particular places in the migration lines of path, such as the extreme ends of, and straits in, many of the large lakes, the bottoms of valleys, between high and rugged mountains, fords in the large rivers, and the like—the Indians kill great numbers of deer, with very little trouble, during their migrations. We looked out for two days from the summits of the hills adjacent, trying to discover the smoke from the camps of the Red Indians, but in vain. These hills command a very extensive view of the country in every direction.

“We now determined to proceed towards the Red Indian Lake, sanguine that at that known rendezvous we would find the objects of our search.

“Travelling over such a country, except when winter has fairly set in, is truly laborious.

“In about ten days, we got a glimpse of this beautifully majestic and splendid sheet of water. The ravages of fire which we saw in the woods, for the last two days, indicated that man had been near. We looked down upon the lake, from the hills at the northern extremity, with feelings of anxiety and admiration. No canoe could be discovered moving on its placid surface. We were the first Europeans who had seen it in an unfrozen state; for the three parties who had visited it before, were here in the winter, when its waters were frozen and covered with snow. They had reached it from below, by way of the River Exploits, on the ice. We approached the lake with hope and caution, but found, to our mortification, that the Red Indians had deserted it for some years past. My party had been so excited, so sanguine, and so determined to obtain an interview

of some kind with these people, that on discovering, from appearances everywhere around us, that the Red Indians, the terror of the Europeans, as well as the other Indian inhabitants of Newfoundland, no longer existed, the spirits of one and all of us were very deeply affected. The old mountaineer was particularly overcome. There were everywhere indications that this had long been the central and undisturbed rendezvous of the tribe, when they had enjoyed peace and security. But these primitive people had abandoned it, after having been tormented by parties of Europeans during the last eighteen years. Fatal rencontres had, on these occasions, unfortunately taken place.

“ We spent several melancholy days wandering on the borders of the east end of the lake, surveying the various remains of what we now contemplated to have been an unoffending and cruelly extirpated people. At several places, by the margin of the lake, are small clusters of summer and winter wigwams in ruins. One difference, among others, between the Bœothic wigwams and those of other Indians is, that in most of the former there are small hollows, like nests, dug in the earth, around the fire-place, and in the sides of the wigwam, so that I think it probable these people have been accustomed to sleep in a sitting position. There was one wooden building constructed for drying and smoking venison in, still perfect; also a small log-house, in a dilapidated condition, which we took to have been a store-house. The wreck of a large handsome birch-rind canoe, about twenty-two feet in length, comparatively new, and certainly very little used, lay thrown up among the bushes at the beach. We supposed that the

violence of a storm had rent it in the way it was found, and that the people who were in it had perished, for the iron nails, of which there was no want, all remained in it. Had there been any survivors, nails being much prized by these people, they never having held intercourse with Europeans, such an article would most likely have been taken out for use again. All the birch-trees in the vicinity of the lake had been rinded, and many of those of the spruce-fir or var, (*pinus balsamifera*, Canadian balsam-tree,) had the bark taken off, to use the inner part for food, as noticed before.

“ Their wooden repositories for the dead are in the most perfect state of preservation. These are of different constructions, it would appear, according to the rank of the persons entombed. In one of them, which resembled a hut, ten feet by eight or nine, and four or five feet high in the centre, floored with square poles, the roof covered with the rinds of trees, and in every way well secured against the weather and the intrusion of wild beasts, the bodies of two full-grown persons were laid out at length on the floor, and wrapped round with deer skins. One of these bodies appeared to have been entombed not longer than five or six years. We thought there were children laid in here also. On first opening this building, by removing the posts which formed the ends, our curiosity was raised to the highest pitch; but what added to our surprise, was the discovery of a white deal coffin, containing a skeleton neatly shrouded in white muslin. After a long pause of conjecture how such a thing existed here, the idea of Mary March occurred to one of the party, and the whole mystery was at once explained.

“ In this cemetery were deposited a variety of articles, in some instances the property, in others the representations of the property and utensils, and of the achievements of the deceased. There were two small wooden images of a man and woman, no doubt meant to represent husband and wife; a small doll, which we supposed to represent a child, (for Mary March had to leave her only child here, which died two days after she was taken;) several small models of their canoes, two small models of boats, an iron axe, a bow, and quiver of arrows, were placed by the side of Mary March's husband, and two fire-stones (radiated iron pyrites, from which they produce fire, by striking them together,) lay at his head; there were also various kinds of culinary utensils, neatly made of birch-rind, and ornamented; and many other things, of some of which we did not know the use or meaning.

“ Another mode of sepulture which we saw here, was, when the body of the deceased had been wrapped in birch-rind, it was, with his property, placed on a sort of scaffold about four feet and a half from the ground. The scaffold was formed of four posts, about seven feet high, fixed perpendicularly in the ground to sustain a kind of crib, five feet and a half in length by four in breadth, with a floor made of small squared beams laid close together horizontally, and on which the body and property rested.

“ A third mode was, when the body, bent together, and wrapped in birch-rind, was enclosed in a kind of box on the ground. The box was made of small square posts, laid on each other horizontally, and notched at the corners to make them meet close. It was about four feet by three, and two and a half

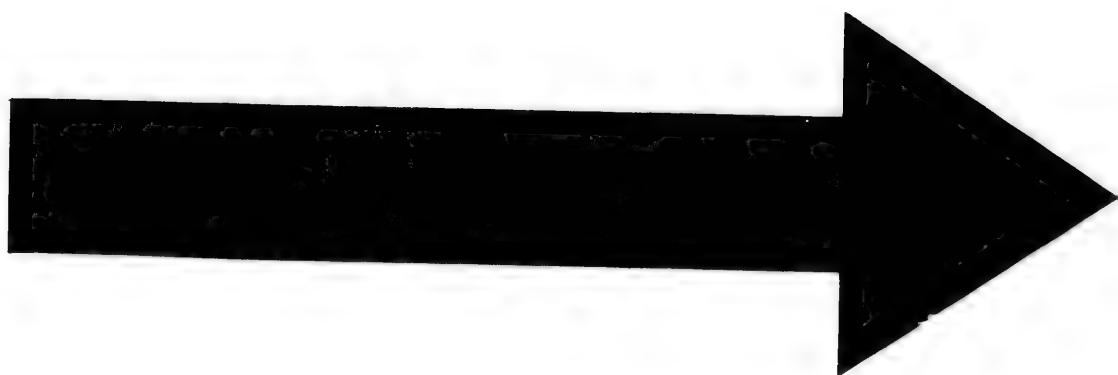
feet deep, and well lined with birch-rind, to exclude the weather from the inside. The body lay on its right side.

"A fourth, and the most common mode of burying among these people, has been to wrap the body in birch-rind, and cover it over with a heap of stones, on the surface of the earth, in some retired spot. Sometimes the body thus wrapped up is put a foot or two under the surface, and the spot covered with stones. In one place, where the ground was sandy and soft, they appeared to have been buried deeper, and no stones placed over the graves.

"These people appear to have always shown great respect for their dead; and the most remarkable remains of them, commonly observed by Europeans at the sea-coast, are their burying-places. These are at particular chosen spots; and it is well known that they have been in the habit of bringing their dead from a distance to them. With their women they bring only their clothes.

"On the north side of the lake, opposite the river Exploits, are the extremities of two deer fences, about half a mile apart, where they lead to the water. It is understood that they diverge many miles in a north-westerly direction. The Red Indians make these to lead the deer to the lake, during the periodical migration of those animals. The Indians, stationing themselves near where the deer get into the water to swim across, the lake being narrow at this end, pursue the animals in their canoes, and kill them with spears. In this way they secure their winter provisions before the severity of the winter sets in.

"There were other remains of different kinds peculiar to these people, met with about this lake.



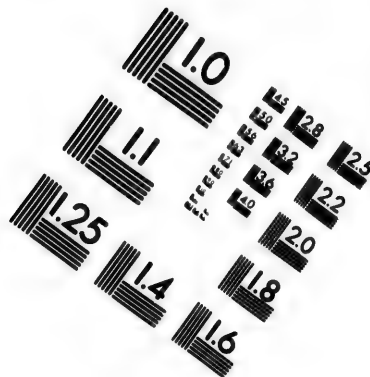
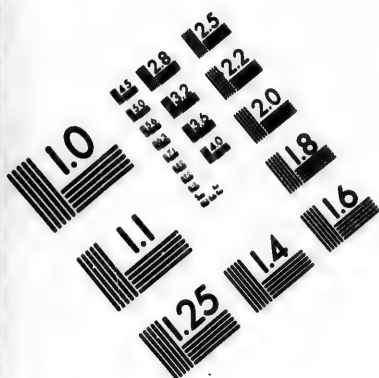
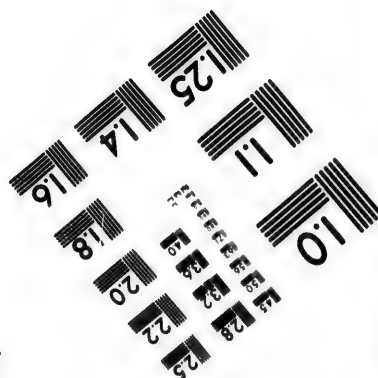
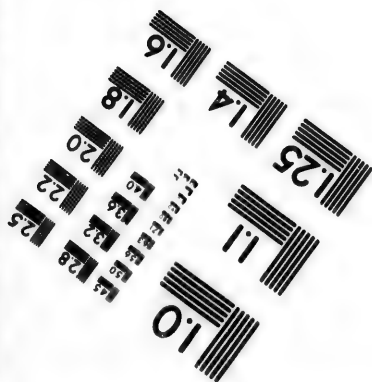
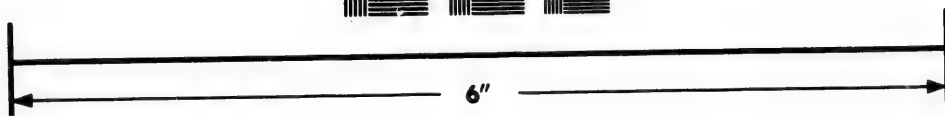
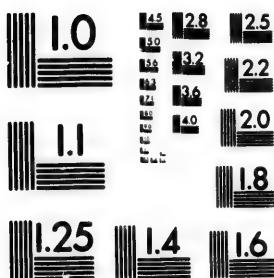


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"One night we encamped on the foundation of an old Indian wigwam, on the extremity of a point of land which juts out into the lake, and exposed to the view of the whole country around. A large fire at night is the life and soul of such a party as ours; and, when it blazed up at times, I could not help observing, that two of my Indians evinced uneasiness and want of confidence in things around, as if they thought themselves usurpers on the Red Indian territory. From time immemorial, none of the Indians of the other tribes had ever encamped near this lake, fearlessly, and as we had now done, in the very centre of such a country; the lake and territory adjacent having been always considered to belong exclusively to the Red Indians, and to have been occupied by them. It had been our invariable practice hitherto to encamp near hills, and be on their summits by the dawn of day, to try and discover the morning smoke ascending from the Red Indians' camps; and, to prevent the discovery of ourselves, we extinguished our own fire always some length of time before daylight.

"Our only and frail hope now left, of seeing the Red Indians, lay on the banks of the River Exploits, on our return to the sea-coast.

"The Red Indian Lake discharges itself about three or four miles from its north-east end; and its waters form the River Exploits. From the lake to the sea-coast is considered about seventy miles; and down this noble river the steady perseverance and intrepidity of my Indians carried me on rafts in four days; to accomplish which, otherwise, would have required probably two weeks. We landed at various places on both banks of the river on our way down,

but found no traces of the Red Indians so recent as those seen at the portage at Badger Bay, Great Lake, towards the beginning of our excursion. During our descent, we had to construct new rafts at the different waterfalls. Sometimes we were carried down the rapids at the rate of ten miles an hour, or more, with considerable risk of destruction to the whole party, for we were always together on one raft.

"What arrests the attention most, in gliding down the stream, is the extent of the Indian fences to entrap deer. They extend from the lake downwards, continuous, on the banks of the river, at least thirty miles. There are openings left here and there for the animals to go through and swim across the river, and at these places the Indians are stationed, and kill them in the water with spears out of their canoes, as at the lake.

"Here, then, connecting these fences with those on the north-west side of the lake, is at least forty miles of country, easterly and westerly, prepared to intercept all the deer that pass that way in their periodical migrations. It was melancholy to contemplate the gigantic, yet rude, efforts of a whole primitive nation, in their anxiety to provide subsistence, forsaken and going to decay.

"There must have been hundreds of Red Indians, and that not many years ago, to have kept up these fences and pounds. As their numbers were lessened, so was their ability to keep them up for the purposes intended, and now the deer pass the whole line unmolested.

"We infer that the few of these people who may yet survive, have taken refuge in some sequestered

spot, in the northern part of the island, where they can procure deer to subsist on.

“ On the 29th of November we again arrived at the mouth of the River Exploits, thirty days after our departure from thence, after having made a complete circuit of 220 miles in the Red Indian territory.

“ The materials collected on this, as well as on my excursion across the interior a few years ago, and on other occasions, put me in possession of a general knowledge of the natural condition and productions of Newfoundland ; and, as a member of an institution formed to protect the aboriginal inhabitants of the country in which we live, and to prosecute enquiry into the moral character of man in his primitive state, I can, at this early stage of our Institution, assert, trusting to nothing vague, that we already possess more information concerning these people, than has been obtained during the two centuries and a half that Newfoundland has been in the possession of Europeans. But it is to be lamented, that now, when we have taken up the cause of a barbarously treated people, so few should remain to reap the benefit of our plans for their civilisation. The Institution and its supporters will agree with me, that after the unfortunate circumstances attending past encounters between the Europeans and the Red Indians, it is best now to employ Indians belonging to the other tribes, to be the medium of beginning the intercourse we have in view ; and, indeed, I have already chosen three of the most intelligent men, from among the others met with in Newfoundland, to follow up my search.

“ I have the pleasure to present to the Bæothic Institution several ingenious articles, the manufac-

ture of the Bœothics, some of which we had the good fortune to discover on our recent excursion, — models of their canoes, bows and arrows, spears of different kinds, &c., and also a complete dress worn by that people. Their mode of kindling fire is not only original, but, as far as we at present know, is peculiar to their tribe. These articles, together with a short vocabulary of their language, consisting of from 200 to 300 words, which I have been enabled to collect, prove the Bœothics to be a distinct tribe from any hitherto discovered in North America. One remarkable characteristic of their language, and in which it resembles those of Europe more than any other Indian languages do, with which we have had an opportunity of comparing it, is its abounding in diphthongs. In my detailed report, I would propose to have plates of these articles, and also of the like articles used by other tribes of Indians, that a comparative idea may be formed of them; and when the Indian female, Shanandithit, arrives in St. John's, I would recommend that a correct likeness of her be taken, and be preserved in the records of the Institution. One of the specimens of mineralogy which we found in our excursion, was a block of what is called Labrador felspar, nearly four and a half feet in length, by about three feet in breadth and thickness. This is the largest piece of that beautiful rock yet discovered anywhere. Our subsistence in the interior was entirely animal food, deer and beavers, which we shot."

The Bœothic Institution of St. John's placed the Indians who had accompanied Mr. Cormack, on their establishment, to be employed under his immediate

direction and control, as president, for the purpose of discovering the abodes of the Red Indians.

The Indian woman, Shanandithit, was also brought to St. John's, where she lived in Mr. Cormack's house, until he left the colony in 1829, when she was taken into the house of the Attorney-General, Mr. Simms. She died in June following. A Newfoundland paper of the 12th June, 1829, notices her death by stating—"Died, on Saturday night, the 6th instant, at the hospital, Shanandithit, the female Indian, one of the aborigines of this island. She died of consumption, a disease which seems to have been remarkably prevalent among her tribe, and which has unfortunately been fatal to all who have fallen into the hands of the settlers. Since the departure of Mr. Cormack from the island, this poor woman has had an asylum afforded her in the house of James Simms, Esq., Attorney-General, where every attention has been paid to her wants and comforts; and, under the able and professional advice of Dr. Carson, who has most kindly and liberally attended her for many months past, it was hoped that her health might have been re-established. Lately, however, her disease had become daily more formidable, and her strength had rapidly declined; and, a short time since, it was deemed advisable to send her to the hospital, where her sudden decease has but too soon fulfilled the fears that were entertained for her. With Shanandithit has probably expired nearly the last of the native Indians of the island; indeed, it is considered doubtful by some whether any of them now survive. It is certainly a matter of regret, that those individuals who have interested themselves

most to support the cause of science and humanity, by the civilisation of these Indians, should have their labours and hopes so unfortunately and suddenly terminated. They have, however, the satisfaction of knowing that their object has been to mitigate the sufferings of humanity, and that, at least, they have endeavoured to pay a portion of that immense debt which is due from the European settlers of Newfoundland to those unfortunate Indians, who have been so long oppressed and persecuted, and are almost, if not wholly, exterminated."

The relics of the Bœothics, which Mr. Cormack brought to England, are exceedingly interesting to all those who take an interest in the study of man, and who would trace his progress from his rude and natural state to what we consider civilisation.

The Indians employed by the Bœothic Institution have been unsuccessful in their journeys, and it is now believed that the tribe is extinct. A very few may possibly still exist in the most hidden and wild places, among deep ravines, or in dark inaccessible solitudes, determined never to appear again in the presence of Europeans.

NOTES TO BOOK III.

NOTE, page 216.

FRANCE is beholden, in a great measure, to the Americans for men to navigate their South Sea whale ships, and to teach the French mariners a knowledge of this perilous fishery. Many of the whale ships, sailing from Havre and other ports as French ships, are the property of an American citizen: this I discovered while visiting the ports of France last autumn (1832).

The Minister of Commerce stated in the Chamber of Deputies, a little before then, "that of 147 whale ships that sailed from Havre during the last fifteen years, sixty-two belonged to a single American citizen." The number of whalers now belonging to Havre is twenty-six, of which seven belong to the same enterprising merchant. The bounty hitherto given by France is seventy francs per ton admeasurement, if the ship be wholly navigated by Frenchmen. This bounty is to be reduced gradually to fifty francs until 1837, then to remain at that minimum. A separate bounty of twenty francs was proposed for new ships, built expressly for the whale fishery. Forty-one francs is the bounty given to French ships, partly navigated by Americans.

The American packets sailing between the United States leave a portion of their crews to navigate the French whalers; and their agents at Havre send to England for British sailors, to navigate the packets back to New York; this I have witnessed; several English sailors so engaged, being on board as passengers in the steam-packet in which I crossed from Portsmouth to Havre. Is not this subject a matter of political consequence?

NOTE, page 224.

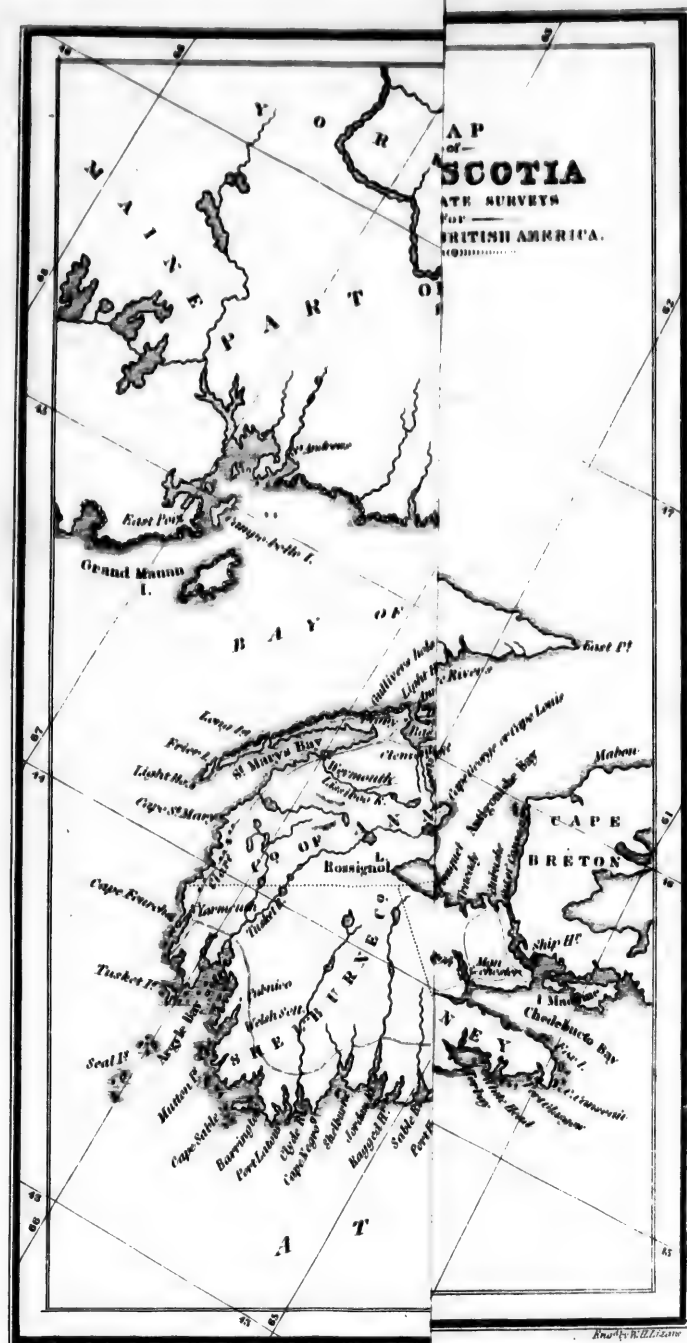
AMONG the Norwegian and Icelandic historical records, the discovery of a country, called by them Winland, on account of its abounding in grapes, is frequently mentioned; and that, in 1221,

Eric, Bishop of Greenland, went to Winland to reform his countrymen, who had degenerated into savages; that he never returned, and that nothing more was heard of Winland for several centuries. It is very probable that the adventurous Norwegians discovered Newfoundland and Labrador; but that they made settlements in either, as they did in Greenland, is very doubtful. As to grapes abounding in Newfoundland, we may safely deny this. The vast quantities of wild cranberries, which are large, red, and juicy, might very naturally have been called grapes by the Norwegians, or Northmen.

Robertson is of opinion that Newfoundland was settled by the Norwegians; and Mr. Pinkerton is very positive on the subject. The latter considers that the Red Indians are their descendants. He, however, in another place, concludes that the whole of the race were destroyed by the Esquimaux. I regret to find Mr. Pinkerton, like all who describe countries they never travel over, so frequently in error, and at times treating, as historical truths, what can only be regarded, in respect to the Indians, as mere conjectures. The *Bœothics* were, from the form of their implements, dress, and language, a distinct warlike tribe of North American Indians; but, from their features and stature, certainly of the same race, and not allied to the Esquimaux, as some writers have asserted.

If we are justified in concluding that any of the American tribes are of the Northmen, or European origin, we can only by comparison consider the Esquimaux as such: their stature, habits, and features being not only different from the aborigines of America, but closely resembling those of the Greenlanders, who are believed to be of European descent.





BOOK IV.

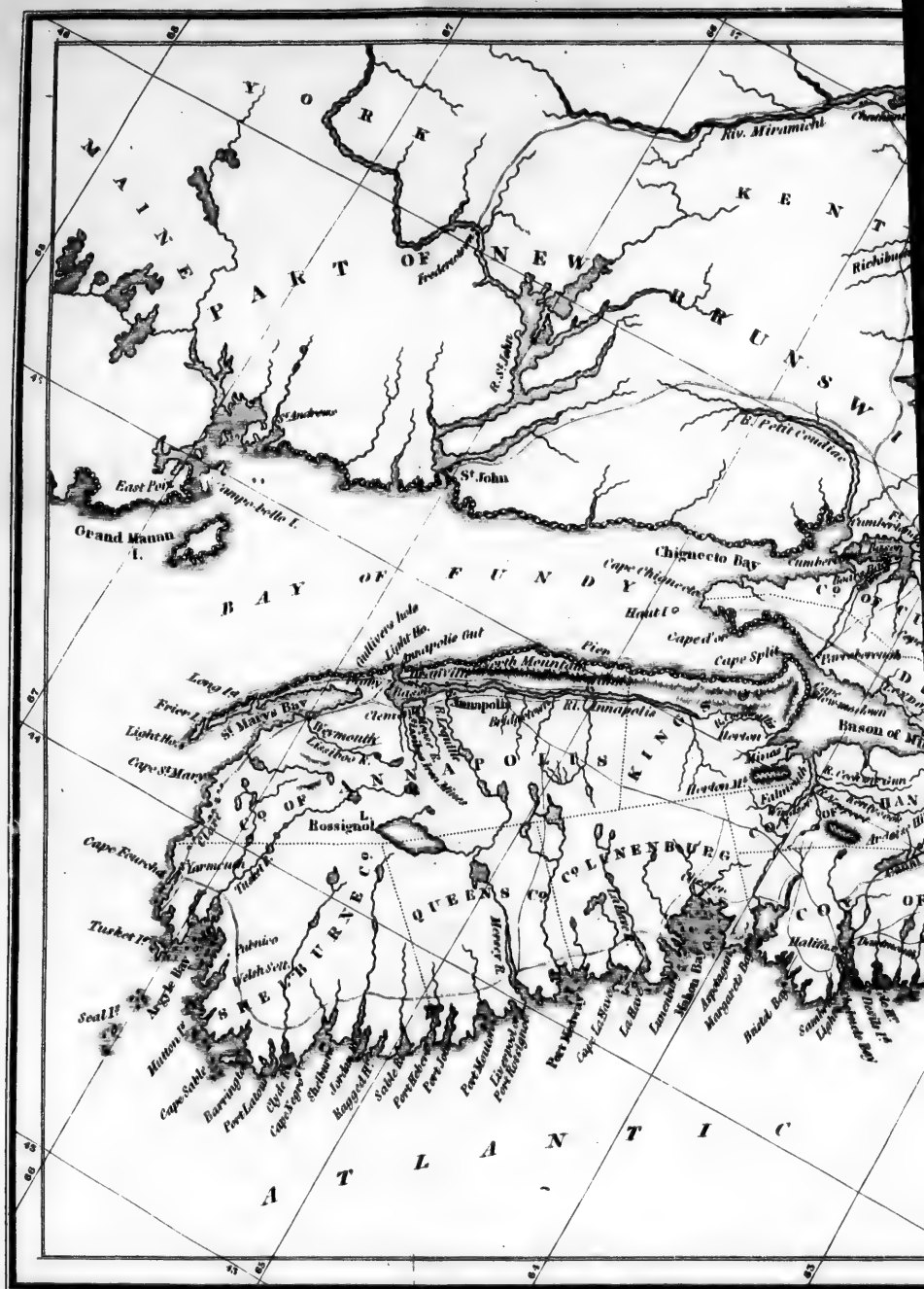
NOVA SCOTIA.

CHAPTER I.

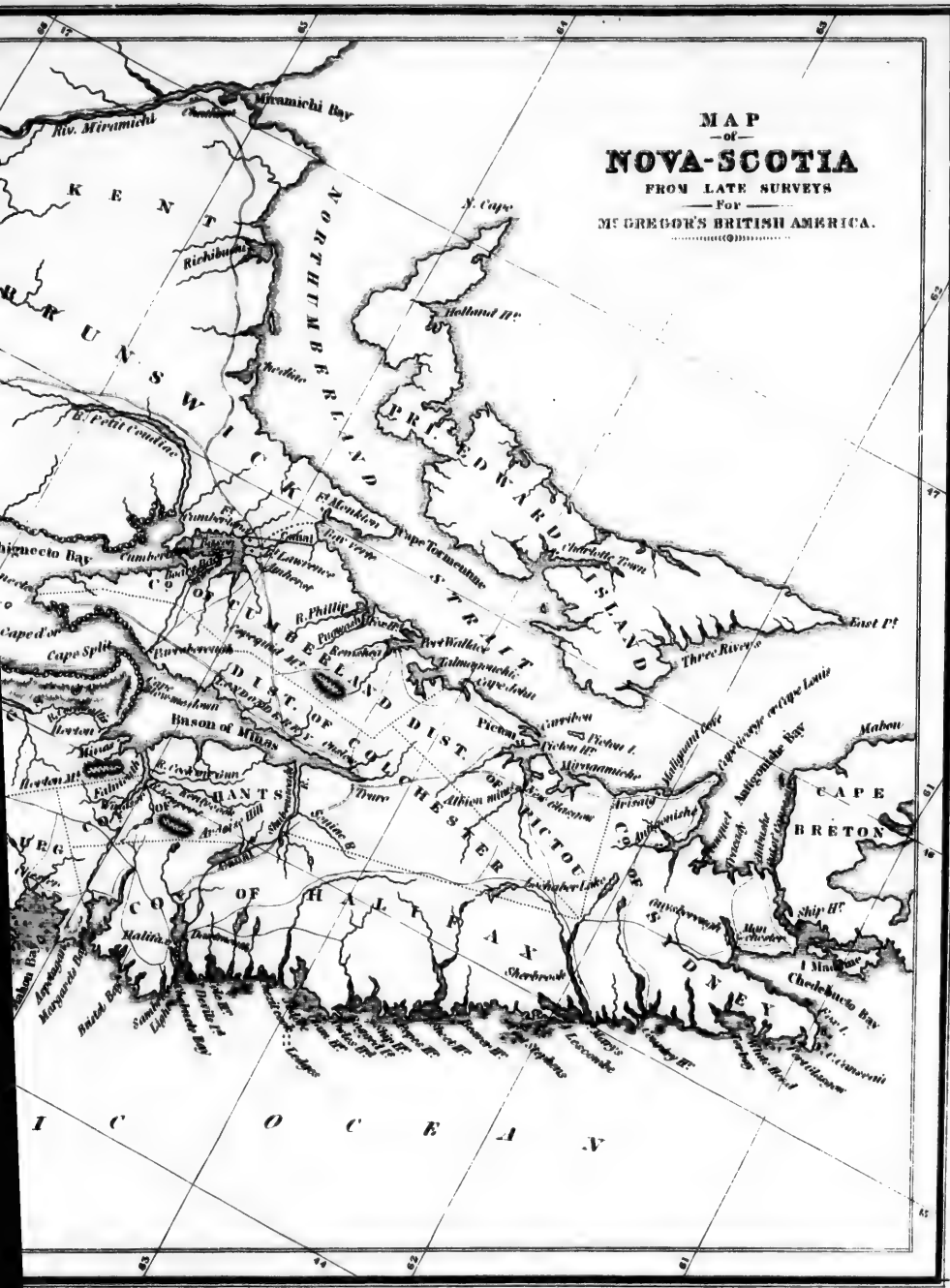
BOUNDARIES. — SUPERFICIES. — CONFIGURATION. — NATURAL RESOURCES. — GEOLOGICAL FEATURES. — MINERALS. — PRODUCTIONS. — WILD ANIMALS, ETC. ETC. — NATURAL CURIOSITIES.

THIS province, previous to 1763, comprehended all the territories situated between the River St. Croix and the Bay de Chaleur; and after the peace of that year, the islands of St. John and Cape Breton were added. In 1770, the first of these islands was separated from Nova Scotia, and shortly after the treaty of 1783 it was reduced, by dividing from it New Brunswick and Cape Breton, to the peninsula, which may be termed Nova Scotia proper, lying to the south of a line drawn from the head of the Bay de Vert, a branch of the Gulf of St. Lawrence, to Cumberland Basin, an arm of the Bay of Fundy. Cape Breton was again, in 1820, reannexed.

Nova Scotia lies within the latitudes of 43° and 46° north, and the longitudes of 61° and 67° west. Its length is about 320 miles, and its average breadth



MAP
— of —
NOVA-SCOTIA
FROM LATE SURVEYS
— For —
MR GREGG'S BRITISH AMERICA.



about 70 miles. Its computed superficies, exclusive of Cape Breton, is 15,500 square miles; from which nearly one-third may be deducted for lakes, arms of the sea, and rivers; leaving about 7,000,000 acres of land, 5,000,000 of which may be considered adapted for cultivation, and the remainder as affording tolerable pasturage.

A great proportion of these lands, estimated at about 3,200,000 acres, is still vacant, and in the hands of the crown; but the largest unoccupied tracts do not in one place exceed 32,000 acres.

As the sea-coast of Nova Scotia was that which necessarily presented itself to the first discoverers, and to those who afterwards visited the country with the view of planting or settling it; and as it must also be admitted that its aspect, particularly on the Atlantic side, is barren, rugged, and apparently incapable of cultivation, it was altogether, without due investigation, from its first discovery till within the last eighty or ninety years, condemned by England as a country unfit for agriculture, cursed with a humid and most inclement climate, and unworthy of any consideration, except for the purpose of trading with the savages for furs.

To account for the wrong opinions which individuals at first, and even a whole nation afterwards, form of new countries, we must conclude that they arise from ignorance, or the bias of prejudice. Hence Nova Scotia, which undoubtedly possesses many advantages paramount to those of Canada, was long considered, both by England and France, of no important value, unless it were for its harbours, which afforded shelter for their ships, and the consequent convenience for each nation to annoy the other. The mines of this

colony are alone sources of great wealth; and it produces, especially in the interior, great plenty of wood for ship-building, coopers, joiners, &c. The soil is capable of yielding more than a sufficient quantity of white and green crops for the support of the inhabitants; and although the climate in winter is colder than in England, yet when the weather is cold, it is usually dry.*

The Atlantic coast of Nova Scotia, from Cape Canseau to Cape Sable, is pierced with innumerable small bays, harbours, and rivers. The shores are lined with rocks and thousands of islands; and although no part of the country can properly be considered mountainous, and there are but few high steep cliffs, yet the aspect of the whole, if not romantically sublime, is exceedingly picturesque; and the scenery, in many places, richly beautiful. The landscape which the head of Mahon Bay, in particular, presents, can scarcely be surpassed.

There is deep water, almost without exception, close to the rocks and islands, and into the harbours. The coasting vessels sail among and within the myriads of islands that line the coast, during the most blustering weather, and have thus the advantage of passing along in smooth water while there is a heavy sea running in the main ocean. Within the Bay of Fundy, the shores have a more continuous outline; and, after passing St. Mary's Bay, the rugged appearance of the coast diminishes, but it still presents a bold and generally high character as far as the Basin of Minas.

The interior of Nova Scotia is intersected and

* See the Theory of the Climate, book ii. chap. iv.

watered by numberless streams, rivers, and lakes; none of the last are large, or at least not considered so in America.

Lake Rossignol, out of which a river, named the Mersey, runs to the harbour now called Liverpool, but formerly Rossignol, is said to be thirty miles long; and Lake George approaches to the same extent.

The mountains, so called, scarcely warrant the appellation; the highest elevation in the province not being more than 700 feet above the level of the ocean. A high hill, called Ardoise Mountain, lying between Halifax and Windsor, is considered the most elevated land in Nova Scotia, and commands a more extensively beautiful and picturesque prospect of land and water than any part of America that I have seen, except the heights of Cape Diamond, above Quebec. There is also a range of high hills between Annapolis Basin and Argyll; and a mountainous or hilly ridge extends on each side of Annapolis River, running parallel with the Bay of Fundy to Cape Blomidon. These eminences, with Horton Mountain, Aspotogan, Cape Porcupine, Mount Tom, and Cobequid Mountains, may be considered the only high lands of consequence in Nova Scotia.

The geological features of this province are prominent; and a greater variety of rocks present themselves, particularly along the Atlantic shores, than I have observed in any other part of North America. Granite, trap, and clay-slate predominate, not only as primitive, but as prevailing rocks along the whole of the coast of Nova Scotia, and several miles into the country, extending from the Gut of Canseau to Cape Sable, and from thence to Brier Island.

Quartz, usually in veins with clay-slate; mica-slate, sienite, and gneiss, but always detached, occur also in this extensive district. Greywacke is the most prevailing kind of transition rock. Whether all the gypsum strata and calcareous rocks belong to the floetz class, I have not been able to ascertain. The vast gypsum strata within the Bay of Fundy, at the Gut of Canseau, and at Antigonish, evidently belong to the latter. Granite and trap rocks appear at Cobequid Mountains, and occur probably in all the hilly parts of Nova Scotia; but so small a portion of the interior has been examined, and so little is known respecting its geology, except where roads cross the country, that it would be presumptuous to state even what appearances indicate.

Granite and calcareous rocks, with grey and red sandstone, prevail in the northern parts of Nova Scotia, from the Gut of Canseau to the Bay de Vert; and extend across the province to the Basin of Minas, if not interrupted by a granite ridge, which may very probably occur in the Mount Tom range of high lands. The hard grey, or blueish sandstone, which occurs in various parts of the province, makes excellent grindstones. The light grey granite quarried at Whitehead, near Cape Canseau, makes remarkably good millstones; and a beautiful freestone, most admirably adapted for building, is abundant in several places, particularly at Port Wallace.

Among the minerals of this province, coal and iron certainly claim the first attention. As to the extent of the coal-fields, or what may be considered independent coal-fields, any opinion on the subject would be incorrect; and it may be sufficient to observe, that enough has been discovered for the consumption of

America for centuries. Iron of excellent quality abounds in great plenty, in different parts of the province, generally accompanying vast strata of coal and chains of carboniferous limestone. A most extensive coal-field has been opened at Pictou.* It is accompanied with vast strata of iron-stone. Coal abounds also at Chignecto, and many other parts of the provinces. Different varieties of copper ore, but not in great plenty, is met with at Carriboo, Tatmagouche, and some other places. Lead ores, chiefly sulphuret of lead and carbonate of lead, are also found in small quantities. Salt springs are met with near Pictou, at River Philip, and in some other parts; one of which is saturated with salt in the proportion of 12 to 88 water.†

The gradual improvements and opening of the country, and the enterprise of companies and individuals, will likely be the means of discovering many other minerals; and the mines in Nova Scotia will, in all probability, become sources of immense wealth.

The soil of Nova Scotia is of many different qualities, and of various degrees of fertility. The alluvial, or *intervale* lands, of which there are extensive tracts, are rich, and produce plentiful returns of

* A particular account of the mines opened near Pictou, and of the spirited operations of the Albion Mining Company, will be found in a following chapter.

† Beautiful specimens of agate, jasper, chalcedony, amethyst, &c., are found along the coast of the Bay of Fundy. A number of the American Journal of Science for 1828, (which, from having mislaid, I cannot refer to,) contains much interesting information respecting the mineralogy of the western part of the province, communicated by Mr. Jackson, and Mr. Alger of Boston, who travelled over a great part of the country.

wheat, barley, oats, Indian corn, potatoes, turnips, and all vegetables and fruits common in England. Apples, equal to any grown in the United States, are produced in many parts of the province; and vines, covering several acres, have been lately discovered growing wild, or indigenous, near Digby. Some of the uplands, lying between the hilly ground and the *intervales*, or rivers, are light and poor, while the high, or what the inhabitants call the mountain lands, are rich, and very productive. This circumstance appears somewhat unaccountable; and the cause assigned is, that the light sand, or other substances, which naturally impart little nutrition to vegetables, having been carried, at various periods, by the rains down from the hills, have left behind a rich loamy earth; and that the poor uplands, or rather midlands, which prevail below the hills, and which have been formed of those sandy and light deposits, being very deep and loose, therefore retain neither rich earth or manures near the surface, and are consequently sterile and unproductive.*

The lands on the southern coast are generally so rocky, as to admit of cultivation only at much expense and labour. After the rocks and stones are removed, the soil is by no means barren; and some remarkably fine tracts are met with at the heads of the bays and up the rivers. The lands, however, within the Bay of Fundy, and those lying between the Gut of Canseau and Bay de Vert, form fertile agricultural districts.

The forest trees of this province are of the same

* Replies to the above purport have frequently been made to me, particularly at Truro, on remarking these seeming contradictions of character in the soil of the neighbouring lands.

kind and quality as those already described under the general head of American trees : nearly all of which abound in Nova Scotia.

The wild animals are the moose, cariboo, bear, loup-cervier, tiger-cat, fox, marten, otter, mink, beaver musk-rat, porcupine, racoon, wood-chuck, fisher, weasel, squirrel, hare, &c., all of which, excepting the two last, have decreased very rapidly in numbers.

Nearly all the birds common to North America frequently Nova Scotia ; and there are but very few kinds of fish which are found in the American seas, that do not swarm round the shores of this colony.

Among the natural curiosities of this country, there is, within three or four miles of Halifax, a rocking granite stone, about seventy-five feet in circumference, and supposed to weigh 164 tons. It rests so equally on a flinty base of twelve inches, that the strength of one hand will put it in motion. It stands near the margin of a small, deep, dark, but placid lake, which is surrounded with wood ; and to which imagination has imparted additional gloom, from the legend of two men having chosen a lamentable termination to their earthly pains and pleasures in its depths. From this circumstance, its name of Withrod Lake has been changed to that of "The Devil's Bowl."

At a brook near Pictou, there is a curious grotto named "Peter Frazer's Cave." It is formed of calcareous rocks. The possessor, who lives in it during summer, has laid a wooden floor over its bottom, hung a door at the entrance, cut two lateral holes through the sides to admit light, and two through the roof to allow the smoke of his fire to escape. It is about 100 feet long, and irregular in its width. Beautiful stalactites suspend from the roof, and a

small stream of pure sweet water flows along its base.

On the coast of the Bay of Fundy, at St. Peter's Point, there is another magnificent grotto. On passing through its entrance, which is from the sea, and very narrow, we are suddenly introduced into a spacious hall, the roof of which is hung with stalactites; and brilliant gems are observed sparkling at the moment the light of torch or candle appears.*

Beneath a steep cliff near Lunenburg are three very remarkable caverns, with great gaping mouths, and named "The Three Ovens."

* Having never seen the cave at St. Peter's Point myself, I have noticed it from a description given me by an intelligent gentleman, residing in Annapolis county.

CHAP. II.

HISTORICAL SKETCH.

DISCOVERY. — CABOT. — SIR HUMPHREY GILBERT. — DE MONTS.
— PORT ROYAL. — POTRINCOURT. — PONTGRAVE. — CHAM-
PLAIN. — LESCARBOT. — RIVER ST. JOHN. — SETTLEMENT OF
PORT ROYAL. — JESUIT MISSIONARIES. — MOUNT DESERT IS-
LAND. — DEMOLITION OF PORT ROYAL, ETC.

NOVA SCOTIA was first discovered in 1497, by John Cabot, or his son Sebastian, under a commission from Henry VII., some time before Columbus actually discovered the main continent of America. With the exception of adventurers trading to Newfoundland, England neglected the discoveries of Cabot until 1583, when Sir Humphrey Gilbert, on making a second voyage to Newfoundland, where he left a small colony, made the attempt to reach the continent, which ended so unfortunately, as before related, in his perishing with his whole ship's crew at sea. His brother, Sir John, revived his claim in 1607, and proceeded to America, where he died the following winter, on an island at the mouth of the Kennebec. His followers, after having endured extreme misery, returned in the spring to England.

The discovery by Cabot, and the possession taken of Newfoundland by Sir Humphrey Gilbert, and afterwards of the continent by his brother Sir John, form the foundation of right by which the English

claimed Nova Scotia and the adjacent countries. The spirit of colonising it, however, seems to have languished on the part of England. It was otherwise with France. Mons. De Monts, a French Protestant, and a gentleman of enterprising, resolute spirit, obtained a commission, in 1603, from Henry IV., constituting him governor of all the countries of America, from 40° to 46° north, under the name of New France, which included Nova Scotia, then and long after called Acadia. Several French adventurers having previously visited Acadia and Canada, the vast profits they realised, by bartering European commodities for furs, created at that time an extraordinary spirit of enterprise among the French merchants; and as De Monts had, by his charter, secured a monopoly of the fur trade, a great number of wealthy men readily associated themselves with him. They soon equipped and fitted out four ships, loaded with all necessary stores and suitable goods, and in March 1604, they sailed from Havre; De Monts having the chief command, accompanied by Champlain, the celebrated navigator of the St. Lawrence, as pilot, and M. Potrincourt and M. Champdore, with numerous volunteer adventurers. De Monts arrived, on the 15th of May, at the harbour in Nova Scotia which now bears the name of Liverpool, where he found a French adventurer, named Rossignol, trading without commission for furs with the Indians. He confiscated this man's property, naming the harbour Port Rossignol, as if to console him by a pretended honour, for the loss of his wealth. From this place De Monts coasted westward to Port Mouton, where he landed, and formed an encampment.

The vessels under De Monts having different des-

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tinations, the one which carried the principal supplies for the winter, and which had been ordered to proceed direct to Canseau, there to wait his arrival, was long missing, in consequence of the delays occasioned by the capturing of four French vessels engaged in trading without licence with the savages.

De Monts soon after despatched this ship to Tadousac, a safe harbour on the north side of the St. Lawrence, at the *débouché* of the river Sagahunny. The other two vessels were ordered to cruise along the shores of Cape Breton and the island of St. John, and off the coast of Acadia, within the Gulf of St. Lawrence, in order to prevent unauthorised adventurers from trading with the natives.

De Monts, in the ship immediately under his command, then proceeded westerly, and sailed into St. Mary's Bay, where he discovered iron ore.* He traversed the coasts of the Bay of Fundy, which he named La Bai Françoise; and, by the narrow strait now called Digby Gut, on the east side, entered a beautiful and extensive basin; with which, and the surrounding prairies and luxuriant woods, Potrin-court was so much charmed, as to select it for his place of settlement. He accordingly received a grant of it from De Monts, named it Port Royal, and soon after returned to France, for the purpose of carrying out his family and the means of establishing himself in Acadia.

* At this place, a priest named Daubré, having forgot his sword at a spring of water in the woods, returned for it, and lost his way; and the ship, after waiting for him several days, left the bay without him. On returning to the bay several weeks afterwards, they found him nearly incapable of any exertion.

De Monts meantime discovered, on the festival of St. John, a large river, which he named after that saint. He afterwards sailed southward, until he came to the river now called St. Croix. On a small island at the entrance of this river, they commenced forming a settlement, by clearing some acres of the trees, building a magazine, a place of worship, several houses, and erecting a fort and battery. This place had, however, scarcely any advantage to recommend it, except its being easily defended. It was improvidently chosen; it afforded neither fresh water nor proper fuel for winter, nor was it the haunt of game. Out of the whole number, seventy-six, which formed De Monts' colony, thirty-seven were carried off by scurvy, produced by living on salt meat, and by having no water but what was procured from melting snow.

When the spring broke up, De Monts, after examining the coast as far as Cape Cod, in search of a more fit place for settlement, resolved on abandoning St. Croix, and removing altogether, along with Pontgrave, who had then arrived with supplies from Europe, to Port Royal. In this place they soon established themselves; and, with the usual success of the French in negotiating with the savages, secured the friendship of the Indians. De Monts sailed for France in autumn, leaving Pontgrave, Champdore, and Champlain, in command of the colony.

In May following, De Monts and Potrin court sailed from France: and, after a tedious passage, reached Canseau, from whence he despatched a party of Indians to communicate his arrival to the settlers at Port Royal.

Pontgrave had previously attempted to explore the

coast south of Cape Cod, agreeably to the instructions of De Monts, but was driven back, and shipwrecked near the entrance of Port Royal. In consequence of this disaster, he built two small vessels; and, putting all he could on board of them, and leaving two volunteers in charge of the remaining stores, he then proceeded to Canseau, before the arrival of the messengers from De Monts; but returned on meeting with a boat's crew which De Monts had left at that place.

It was considered that, notwithstanding the energy of De Monts, the settlements at Port Royal would have been unsuccessful, were it not for measures pointed out by Lescarbot, a gentleman bred to the law, but who, from personal attachment, accompanied Potrincourt. He showed the urgent necessity of importing and breeding domestic cattle, and of cultivating the soil, in order to become independent of the Indians for food, or of receiving supplies of provisions from Europe. The settlers would then, he contended, be more secure in trading with the natives, by living more compactly, and not subjected to chance for the means of subsistence.

De Monts left Acadia for France in August, 1606. Still anxious to establish a colony farther south, he despatched Potrincourt in another vessel to explore the country to the southward of Cape Cod; but this, like his former voyage, was quite unsuccessful; and he returned to Port Royal in November, where he was received with great joy, friendship, and respect, by Pontgrave, Lescarbot, and Champlain.

The winter being remarkably mild, and the spring early, these respectable adventurers appear, from Lescarbot's account, to have passed their time most

agreeably and sociably. At their principal mess-table, Pontgrave, Champlain, Lescarbot, and twelve others, dined, taking upon them the offices of president and caterer in daily rotation. They diverted themselves in making short hunting excursions, and employing their people in building two small shallops, and erecting a mill. After waiting a long time for the arrival of De Monts with supplies from France, a vessel at last appeared from Canseau, bringing only a few provisions and stores, and the mortifying information that the charter of De Monts was revoked, in consequence of the remonstrances made against it by the French merchants; and that he was therefore under the necessity of relinquishing all connection with Acadia.*

The high-minded Potrin-court, distressed, but not disheartened, on receiving this intelligence, at a time when the colony was so far established, that nothing but a substantial right to the soil, and some further assistance in the way of supplies, were necessary to ensure its prosperity and permanency, resolved to return to France, for the purpose, if possible, of obtaining both. He did not leave, however, until he was enabled to carry with him samples of wheat, and other agricultural produce, some native animals, and several specimens of minerals, which, on his arrival in France, he presented to the king.

He succeeded in obtaining a grant of Port Royal,

* About this time, several Dutch adventurers frequented the coast, and to such extremes did their avarice lead them, that they pillaged the very graves, in order to obtain the beaver skins of which the Indians made the shrouds of their dead. Nothing could have exasperated the savages more, and they ever afterwards held the Dutch in execration.

saddled, however, with a stipulation to provide for two Jesuits, who were to accompany him for the conversion of the savages. This condition was exceedingly disagreeable to Potrincourt; and soon after his arrival at Port Royal, he did not scruple to let them know his determination to exclude them from all interference with his affairs. He told them, "that their duty was limited to teaching men the way to Heaven, and that it remained for him to govern and direct those under him on earth."

Their residence at Port Royal might have been of little importance, were it not for the attendant sequel.

Potrincourt unwisely despised them; and rendered not only their situation uncomfortable, but their efforts to convert the Indians fruitless. Their complaints against him and his son Biencourt were believed in France, and apparently terminated by the arrival of a vessel, despatched in 1613 by their patroness, a pious lady of the name of De Gaucherville. This ship, having on board two priests and some emigrants, carried away the Jesuits from Port Royal; and, sailing out of the Bay of Fundy, they fixed on the Island of Mount Desert, lying a few miles north of Penobscot Bay, as a proper situation for a settlement. Here they commenced by erecting a cross, setting up the arms of their lady patroness, and naming the place St. Saviour's.

While erecting suitable buildings, and preparing the ground for cultivation, they were surprised by an English ship of war from Virginia, commanded by a Captain Argall, who pillaged the place and compelled them to surrender as prisoners of war, for having encroached upon, and settled within, English

limits. One of the Jesuits was shot through the head while urging the settlers to defend themselves ; two ships that lay at anchor were seized, in one of which most of the prisoners were sent to France ; the others were carried to Virginia.

This affair led to the fitting out of an armament from Virginia, commanded by Argall, for the purpose of dislodging the French settled in Acadia. Argall, piloted by the Jesuit Beart, proceeded to Port Royal, now commanded by Biencourt, the son of Potrin-court, and destroyed the fort, but spared the mills and corn-fields. Biencourt attempted to treat with him, offering Argall an equal share in the trade, if he could obtain the protection of England, and the person of the Jesuit ; but the conference ended by some of the French associating themselves with the savages, others leaving for Quebec to join Champlain, and by those who surrendered being sent to England.*

This outrageous affair, during a time of profound peace between England and France, cannot be defended on the slightest ground of justice ; and must be attributed principally to the thirst for plunder, and partly to religious bigotry. By this unwarrantable waste and violation of private property, to which force alone gave authority, the first settlement made in North America was destroyed in 1613 or 1615, after prospering for eight or ten years, and without experiencing a share of that ferocious opposition from the savages which proved so dreadfully fatal to the early attempts of England at colonisation.

* Charleroi. — Lescarbot.

CHAP. III.

ENGLAND ATTEMPTS PLANTING NOVA SCOTIA. — SIR WILLIAM ALEXANDER. — BARONETS OF NOVA SCOTIA. — SIR DAVID KIRK. — CLAUDE DE LA TOUR. — COUNTRY CEDED TO FRANCE. — MADAME DE LA TOUR. — ACADIA TAKEN BY OLIVER CROMWELL. — CEDED AGAIN TO FRANCE.

ALTHOUGH the French settlements in Acadia were destroyed, it was neglected by England until 1621, when Sir William Alexander obtained a most extraordinary charter, granting him the whole territory called Acadia from James I. The name of the country was then changed to that of Nova Scotia. Sir William was an accomplished gentleman, of high literary attainments, the author of several tragedies, and much about the court of James I., who afterwards appointed him a secretary of state, and created him a baron, with the title of Viscount Stirling.*

During the summer which followed the date of his patent, Sir William Alexander despatched a vessel with a small colony for Nova Scotia, which, owing to delay and a long passage, had to winter at Newfound-

* Charles I., confirming the charter of King James I., added all Canada, and the greater part of the countries now forming the United States. Both sovereigns had almost an equal right to grant territories in the moon; for neither did Nova Scotia or Canada cease to be possessed by France until we finally secured both countries, the first by the treaty of Utrecht in 1712, the latter by the treaty of 1763.

land. This ship proceeded on her voyage in the spring, visited a few harbours in Nova Scotia, and then returned to England, without any attempt being made to establish a settlement. A most Utopian account of the country and climate was published from the descriptions of those who performed this voyage.

From the time Port Royal was destroyed, up to this period (1623), great numbers of French, and several Dutch adventurers, resorted to the province, and occupied different parts of the country, where they carried on a profitable fur trade, as well as a fishery at Canseau, and in some other harbours. The war with France, however, which commenced in the early part of the reign of our Charles I., completely crushed the French plantations in Acadia; and that monarch not only confirmed the grant to Sir William Alexander, but completed what James had intended, namely, the instituting of the order of Baronets of Nova Scotia. The institution of this order was ratified by parliament, and the number limited to one hundred and fifty; certain stipulations, contained in the grants of land attached to these titles, were at first required to be fulfilled before they were confirmed by the king. At present the title of baronet of Nova Scotia is conferred, without regard to number, according to his majesty's pleasure, and with all the privileges and rank of baronets of Scotland.

In 1627, Sir William Alexander, assisted by a French Calvinist of the name of Kirckt, who fled to England from Dieppe in France, on the score of religious persecution, fitted out a few vessels, well armed, for Nova Scotia.

This squadron, commanded by Kirckt, who was

also made a baronet, under the title of Sir David Kirk, proceeded on the voyage, and fell in with a fleet of French transports laden with stores, and one hundred and thirty-five pieces of ordnance, intended for Quebec and Port Royal. These vessels they captured, and in the following year reduced Port Royal. No settlement, however, was made at this period; and two years after, Sir William Alexander, discouraged at the failure of his attempts to colonise Nova Scotia, transferred the whole, except Port Royal, to Claude de la Tour, a French protestant, who was on board the transports captured by Sir David Kirk.*

This gentleman possessed wealth, talents, and an enterprising mind; and, while residing, after his capture, in England, married a lady of the queen's household, and was knighted. He proceeded to Nova Scotia, where Etienne de la Tour, his son by a former marriage, still commanded a fort at Cape Sable, on the part of France. His father could not, however, induce him to submit to the power of England; and, in consequence, Sir Claude was unsuccessful in forming a settlement.

The inconsiderate treaty of St. Germain, in 1632, ceded Nova Scotia, with Cape Breton and Canada, to France; and a long train of unfortunate circumstances attended our American colonies in consequence.

Canada, Acadia, Cape Breton, and St. John's Island, were then placed under the worst of all governments; namely, that of a company of merchants. These were embodied by royal charter, and styled

* Nothing since this period has been heard of Sir William Alexander's claim, until the year 1830; a period of 200 years.

"The Company of New France;" under whose vassalage Acadia was now governed by M. Razillais. The lands of the colony were divided principally between the governor, whose share fell to his successor Daubrè Charnisè Mon Denys, and Etienne de la Tour. The jealousies of Charnisè and La Tour, arising principally from rivalry in the fur trade, partook for many years of a similar spirit to that which directed the predatory warfare of feudal chieftains; and Mon Denys, who occupied the country from Cape Canseau to Gaspé, and who built a fort, and resided at Chedebucto, where he carried on a profitable fur trade, was finally ruined and driven from the colony by the intrigues of his countrymen.*

* "In 1634, La Tour arrived at the harbour of Boston, in a ship having 140 men on board; the master and crew of which were Protestants of Rochelle. He stated to the governor that his fort on the River St. John was besieged by his rival, and that he had come for the purpose of seeking aid to remove him. Recourse was had to the Bible, as was usual with the Puritans on all doubtful occasions, to discover, if possible, some case which would, by analogy, apply to the present, and furnish a rule for their conduct. On the one hand, it was said, the speech of the prophet to Jehoshaphat, in 2 Chron. xix. 2., and the portion of Solomon's Proverbs contained in chap. xxvi. 17th verse, not only discharged them from any obligation, but actually forbade them to assist La Tour; while, on the other hand, it was agreed that it was as lawful for them to give him succour, as it was for Joshua to aid the Gibeonites against the rest of the Canaanites, or for Jehoshaphat to aid Jehoram against Moab, in which expedition Elisha was present, and did not reprove the King of Judah. These conflicting authorities divided their councils; and though either course was sanctioned by Scripture, it did not appear that there was any certain rule on the subject, while the safest course was to adhere to the old maxim, *Dubia causa bellum non est suscipiendum*."—HALIBURTON'S *Nova Scotia*, p. 54.

De la Tour's principal establishment was on the River St. John. His wife appears, from the records of that period, to have been a woman of extraordinary high mind and heroism.

Madame de la Tour, having had occasion to visit England on the affairs of her husband, engaged on her return with the master of a vessel to land her at the River St. John; who, instead of doing so, proceeded to Cape Breton, and the countries within the Gulf of St. Lawrence, where he continued during the summer, trading with the Indians, and afterwards sailed for Boston. Madame de la Tour was detained during this period on board the ship of this European savage, suffering all the miseries of a protracted voyage, and the most painful uneasiness of mind. On landing at Boston, she commenced an action against the villanous captain, and recovered about 2000*l.* damages. She then proceeded to the fort at the River St. John, where, during the absence of her husband, she was besieged by Charnisè, whom she beat off, by disabling his ship, and killing and wounding several of his men. Some time after, the brutal Charnisè, taking again the advantage of La Tour's absence, attacked his fort; and Madame de la Tour, with astonishing bravery, commanded its defence; but at length, in order to save the lives of her men, she accepted the terms of capitulation proposed by Charnisè.

On entering the fort, this horrible tyrant, enraged at having been once so gallantly repulsed, and a second time so courageously resisted, by a female, hanged all the prisoners except one, who was compelled to execute the others. He then led Madame de la Tour with a halter round her neck to a tree,

and exposed her for some time before his men. The effect of this indignant treatment, and grief for the fate of her brave and faithful people, caused her death in a few days.

Charnisè then destroyed the fort, and carried the ordnance, and all La Tour's effects, to Penobscot, to which place he had removed from La Have.

La Tour's own character, however, was none of the fairest; and the records of Massachusetts Bay charge him with disgraceful and ungrateful conduct. He afterwards went to Canada and Hudson Bay, where he was connected with the fur trade; but returned on the death of Charnisè, whose widow he married; and by the death of a pious lady of St. Omers, a sister of Charnisè, he became repossessed of all his property in Nova Scotia.

La Tour remained in peaceable possession until 1654, when an armament, despatched by Oliver Cromwell, conquered the province. Disgusted with his own countrymen, who were about to dislodge him by intrigue and force, when Acadia submitted to the arms of England, he transferred his allegiance; and two years after, he obtained a grant of his lands from the Protector. He afterwards sold his lands and property in Nova Scotia to Sir Thomas Temple, who, after spending large sums in forming establishments, and after securing a profitable share in the fur trade, was most unjustly deprived of the whole by the treaty of Breda, which ceded the province again to France.

An armament, sent in 1690 from Massachusetts, under the command of Sir William Phipps, retook Port Royal, levelled its fortifications, and burnt the establishments at Chedebucto. The object of this

expedition appears to have been more to annoy the French than to possess the country. It was, however, considered as a conquered province, and added by a new charter to the government of Massachusetts. Some aggressions on the part of France, who still occupied her usual places of resort for the fur trade; and the demolition, by Villebon, the French governor, and the Baron Castine, reinforced by two ships of war, of the English fort at Pemiquid; were resented by an expedition under the command of Colonel Church. He sailed up the Bay of Fundy, drove most of the Acadians to the woods; and, on the refusal of those who surrendered to join the English in pursuit of the Indians, he burnt their church and all their houses, destroyed their cattle, and demolished the dikes which guarded their rich marshes from the sea.

In 1696, the treaty of Ryswick gave Nova Scotia again to France; and that government soon after entered with spirit and resolution into measures for colonising the province, and securing its fur trade, and especially the fisheries. The latter, in which the English had for some time participated largely, became the fertile source of dispute between the New England colonists and the French in Nova Scotia. The French government also encouraged the pirates who infested the coasts to commit depredations on the shores of Massachusetts, and on the English fishing vessels, by offering them an asylum, and the means of disposing of their plunder, at La Have.

The people of New England retaliated, in 1704, by despatching Colonel Church a second time, with about six hundred troops, to pillage the French

settlements in Nova Scotia. He proceeded to Passamaquody, where he burnt all the houses, and seized the property of the inhabitants.

He then crossed the bay to Port Royal, and sent the boats with a detachment to Minas, where they plundered and destroyed three flourishing villages. On their return to Port Royal, Church discovered that the fortresses, built since he destroyed the place eight years before, were too strong to be taken by the force under his command. He therefore sailed to Chignecto, where he laid waste all the settlements, and carried the plunder to Massachusetts. The New England States, still unwilling to relinquish the conquest of Nova Scotia, raised a thousand troops, who were despatched, in 1707, with two ships of war, to take Port Royal; but they were repulsed with great gallantry by M. Subercuse, who succeeded Brouillard. The same force was soon after sent again from New England to Port Royal, but they returned a second time equally unsuccessful.

The conquest of Port Royal was, however, determined upon; and in 1710, an armament, commanded by General Nicholson, an able and brave officer, consisting of four men-of-war, nineteen transports, with one regiment of marines, and four provincial regiments, appeared before Port Royal. With the exception of those on board of one vessel that was wrecked, the troops landed without difficulty. Batteries were immediately erected by the English; and after a heavy cannonading on both sides, the garrison capitulated. The conditions were most honourable both to General Nicholson and the gallant Subercuse.

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CHAP. IV.

TREATY OF UTRECHT FINALLY SECURES NOVA SCOTIA TO ENGLAND. — PORT ROYAL NAMED ANNAPOLIS, IN HONOUR OF QUEEN ANNE. — FRENCH ACADIANS. — BARBARITIES OF THE SAVAGES. — GRAND ATTEMPT OF FRANCE TO RECOVER LOUISBURG AND ACADIA. — SPLENDID EXPEDITION COMMANDED BY THE DUKE D'AINVILLE, AND DISASTROUS SEQUEL. — TREATY OF AIX-LA-CHAPELLE.

FRANCE still seemed anxiously disposed to regain possession of Nova Scotia, but the treaty of Utrecht, in 1713, secured the province to England, from which time the country has not been subject to any other government.

The name of Port Royal was now changed, in honour of Queen Anne, to Annapolis: the fortifications were repaired and strengthened; and General Nicholson appointed as the first resident British governor. He arrived at Annapolis in 1714, but did not succeed in obtaining the allegiance of the French settlers, who, by the capitulation of Port Royal, were allowed two years to retire, with their effects, from the province. In 1719, Colonel Phillips arrived, and succeeded Governor Nicholson; and, by royal instructions, established a council to assist him in managing the civil affairs of the colony. The province, at this period, was resorted to only by trading adventurers, and there were no resident inhabitants but the Acadian French; who, although

abandoned by their hereditary sovereign, still withheld allegiance to any other.* Clinging with extraordinary affection and lingering hopes to France, it was long, and then with wonderful reluctance, before many of these unfortunate, and frequently ill-used people, were induced to swear fealty to the King of England. From this period to the peace (1763) that succeeded the conquest of Louisburg and Canada, Nova Scotia was incessantly harassed by the savages; and the ill-fated Acadians kept the provincial government at the same time in continual uneasiness. Powerful armaments were sent from France, to reconquer the country; but, being subjected to dreadful tempests, experienced the most tragical discomfiture. The details of these circumstances, although interesting, would now be considered tedious; and it will probably be sufficient to observe the leading features of this period.

The vicinity of the islands of St. John and Cape Breton to Nova Scotia, which were still possessed by France, formed not only retreats for the savages, but places where they received rewards for their barbarities, as well as instructions from the Jesuit missionaries. The building and fortifying of Louisburg gave France a safe rendezvous for her fleets, and a position in every respect incomparably superior to Port Royal, for the purpose of annoying and injuring the English colonists. The hopes of the Acadian French, cherished by a knowledge of the

* The condition of the Acadian French, from the first settlement of Acadia to the present time, forms a subject of such interest, as to require, besides what occurs in this Historical Sketch, a distinct account, which will appear in a subsequent chapter.

past eventful history of Acadia, which had so often changed its masters, held them ever ready to assist even the feeblest effort of France to regain its sovereignty.

The settlement of Acadia was long disregarded by the British, although the governors issued proclamations which stated their readiness to grant lands on favourable terms to emigrants. But as the New England and Southern States were at this time in a condition to afford abundant room for new settlers, emigrants, especially farmers, preferred removing to those places where others had previously gone, and of whom, or of their success, they had some knowledge. Very few, therefore, except trading adventurers, resorted for a long time to Nova Scotia. A respectable fishery was, previously to 1720, established at Canseau harbour ; but during the autumn of that year, a desperate attack was made on this place by the Indians, several persons were killed, all the property plundered, and the merchants ruined. Many other acts of pillage and cruelty were committed by the savages ; and several vessels lying in the different harbours were surprised and plundered, and the crews either scalped or made prisoners.

The Indians contended that the country was theirs by immemorial occupancy, and that they were an independent people ; and the Governor of Louisburg, although it was well known that the savages were persuaded by the French to commit these outrages, declared that he had no control over them.

In 1723, Canseau was surprised a second time by the Indians, who seized sixteen or seventeen vessels lying at anchor, and took several prisoners, some of whom they scalped. Even the seat of government

(Annapolis) was attacked by them; and, although repulsed, they burnt some houses, and took several prisoners, one or two of whom they scalped.

It became at length necessary to resort to resolute and effective measures against the Indians. On the west coast of the Bay of Fundy, the Abenaki tribe were entirely governed by a Jesuit priest, named Père Rallè, and by a son of the Baron Castine by an Indian woman. The latter, whom they considered their cacique or leader, was arrested, but soon afterwards released. He and Père Rallè resided at Kennebec; and an expedition against the Indians and Acadians settled in this place, was despatched from Massachusetts, which defeated both with great slaughter, and among the killed was Père Rallè. The chapel, crucifix, and all that was considered idolatrous, were then destroyed, the goods plundered, and the buildings subjected to conflagration. The fate of Père Rallè was much deplored by the Indians; and it was maintained that the provincials, after he was killed, treated his body with the most brutal barbarity.*

* "LE PÈRE RALLÈ, who had been a missionary among the savages for forty years, resided at Noridgewank at this time, and had erected a church there. They loved and idolised him, and were at all times ready to hazard their lives for his preservation. He was conversant with the English and Dutch languages, and master of the several dialects of the Abenakis nation. His literary attainments, though of little use to him in such a situation, appear to have been very respectable; and his Latin, in which he generally addressed those gentlemen at Boston with whom he had occasionally a controversial correspondence, was pure, classical, and elegant. As both those persons (the Baron Castile and Le Père Rallè) were supposed to have instigated the Indians to hostility, as well in Nova Scotia as on the confines of New England,

Soon after the beginning of the war that commenced with France in 1744, Canseau was destroyed by an expedition sent from Louisburg. The Indians also recommenced their hostilities; and, under the directions of a French priest, and with some troops under the command of an officer from Cape Breton, besieged Annapolis. They were, however, compelled to raise the siege; and rewards were at the same time offered by the English to those who captured or scalped the savages. These premiums were, 120*l.* for every male prisoner above twelve years old, or 100*l.* if scalped; and 60*l.* for women and children made prisoners, or 50*l.* if scalped. Notwithstanding these measures, Annapolis was again attacked by about one thousand Indians and several Acadians, commanded by French officers. These were also repulsed, and Louisburg and the island of St. John

and were in the immediate interest of the Governor of Canada, they became very obnoxious to the English." Charlevoix informs us, "that La Père Rallè, though unprepared, was not intimidated, and advanced towards the English in order to attract their attention to him, and thus screen his flock by the voluntary offer of his own life. As soon as he was discovered, he was saluted with a shout, and a shower of bullets, and fell, together with seven Indians, who had rushed out of their tents to shelter him with their bodies, at the foot of a cross which he had erected in the middle of the village." He adds, "that the savages, when the pursuit had ceased, returned to weep over their beloved missionary; and that they found his body perforated with balls, his head scalped, his skull broken with hatchets, his mouth and eyes filled with mud, the bones of his legs fractured, and his limbs dreadfully mangled. After having bathed his remains with their tears, they buried him in the site of the chapel, where the preceding evening he had celebrated the sacred rites of religion." — HALIBURTON'S *Nova Scotia*, p. 104.

were taken the following year by the provincial troops under General Pepperel.

The conquest of Cape Breton and St. John was of serious consequence to France, while it secured Nova Scotia, in a great measure, against the depredations of the savages, and gave the British ships of war the advantage of all the harbours on the coasts of America, with the consequent effectual means of annoying the commerce of France.

The harbour of Louisburg, and the possession of Cape Breton and Nova Scotia, was, however, an object of too much importance to the French nation, to be abandoned to England without an extraordinary effort to recover those colonies. One of the most powerful fleets that had ever left France for North America was therefore equipped for sea, provided with immense stores of artillery, ammunition, and provisions, and having on board about four thousand regular troops. The supreme command was given to the Duke d'Anville. They sailed, early in the summer of 1746, from Rochelle, unobserved by the English, and escaped the pursuit made by Admiral Lestock. The disasters which this expedition experienced are scarcely paralleled by the fate of the invincible Armada of Spain. After a passage of nearly three months, D'Anville, with three ships, reached Chebucto, where one of his fleets had arrived before him. Exhausted by fatigue and anxiety, he died a few days after. Several other vessels arrived, after experiencing great hardships; and the second command, under the vice-admiral, was assumed by M. De la Jonquiere, governor of Canada. Eighteen hundred men, chiefly Indians and *courreurs du bois*, intended to co-operate with D'Anville, arrived early

in the season at Minas, under M. de Ramzay, who, having waited beyond the expected time, returned towards Canada. Four hundred of these were overtaken, and joined the French force in Acadia.

But the wretched condition of the troops that had arrived from France, and the great number of ships with stores and troops which were either lost or not accounted for, called for a council of war, in which the bombardment of Louisburg, according to the original plan, was relinquished, and an attack upon Annapolis agreed to, much against the advice of Vice-Admiral Destournelle, who now had the chief command. Upwards of twelve hundred men were lost during the voyage from France, and the majority of the survivors were reduced to a condition of helpless debility by scurvy and fever. It was found necessary to allow them time to recover, and encampments were accordingly formed for their accommodation. The infection was then caught by the Indians, several hundreds of whom became its victims; and about the same number of sailors and troops as died during the voyage were carried off by disease after landing. Destournelle, reduced to that state of bodily weakness and depression of mind which usually causes delirium, terminated his life by running a sword through his body. Great as these accumulated evils were, the attack upon Annapolis, if to be attempted at all, could no longer be deferred; and the fleet, reduced from seventy to forty ships, with the remaining troops, accordingly left Chebucto on the 13th October. The measure of calamity, however, which destiny had prepared for this expedition, was not yet completed. A tremendous storm dispersed the fleet off Cape Sable, drove them from the coast, and back to France,

where most of them arrived in a disabled and miserable condition.

This splendid fleet, which raised such glorious hopes in France, and caused proportionate terror in the British colonies, would, no doubt, if attended with even common fortune, have repossessed France of all the territories she claimed in America. The glorious sun of England was now, however, in the ascendant ; and in the beginning of May, another fleet of thirty-nine ships, most expensively equipped, and destined for America, under the command of the gallant Jonquire, was defeated by Admiral Anson. M. Ramzay still remained in Nova Scotia, holding the province in a state of alarm ; but the intelligence of Jonquire's defeat destroyed all the sanguine hopes he had entertained of success, and he soon after retreated to Canada.

After the power of France had been so effectually weakened in America as to leave all the sea-coasts and the fisheries under the dominion of Great Britain, there was scarcely any circumstance that could have more deeply mortified the English colonists than the restitution of Cape Breton to France by the treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle.

CHAP. V.

PLAN FOR COLONISING NOVA SCOTIA. — GOVERNOR CORNWALLIS.
— HALIFAX FOUNDED. — INDIAN HOSTILITIES. — NEUTRAL
FRENCH. — FLEETS WHICH CARRY THE FORCES TO LOUISBURG
AND QUEBEC ARRIVE AT HALIFAX. — MR. PITT'S VIGOROUS
POLICY. — CONSTITUTIONAL GOVERNMENT GRANTED TO NOVA
SCOTIA. — TREATY WITH THE INDIANS, ETC.

A PLAN for settling the province of Nova Scotia, agreeably to the recommendation of the Board of Trade, was now decided upon; and measures were adopted to form a settlement, and build a town and fortifications, within a harbour of equal security with Port Royal, and one that possessed also the advantage of immediate access during the whole year from the Atlantic.

The encouragement offered by government to effect this object was too favourable not to be immediately accepted. Lands were to be granted to officers who had served during the war; the quantity, according to rank, from two hundred to six hundred acres; and to soldiers and seamen, fifty acres, with an addition according to the number of their families. Forty thousand pounds were voted by Parliament for defraying the expense of conveying the settlers to Nova Scotia, to assist in the erection of habitations, and to furnish one year's provisions.

Chebucto, on the east coast of the province, was fixed upon, on account of its safe and capacious

harbour, at all times accessible, with its position the most convenient of any part of America as a rendezvous for fleets, and as a station to command the coasts, and to annoy the French trade with Canada, Cape Breton, and the West Indies.

In the month of June, the Honourable Edward Cornwallis, holding his Majesty's commission as governor of the province, arrived with about four thousand adventurers at Chebucto; and having fixed on the sloping side of a peninsula, on the west side of the harbour, for the site of a town, laid it out according to a regular plan, and named it Halifax, in honour of the Earl of Halifax, then President of the Board of Trade and Plantations.

By the judicious arrangements of Governor Cornwallis, and the celerity with which the woods were cleared away, and houses and huts built, the colonists, as well as the military and seamen, were comfortably accommodated with habitations before winter. A council was formed, and measures adopted for the preservation of order, regulating the direction of labour, and enforcing a due obedience to the laws. Plans for defending the town were soon afterwards executed. The hostile spirit of the Indians rendered this necessary; while it was well known that the French colonists never ceased to excite the savages to acts of depredation, as long as they held possession of Louisburg. Neither could the Acadian French be depended upon. Although they and the Indians professed by their deputies submission to England, yet they resolved to remain, as former, neutral, and refused to become subjects by swearing allegiance to his Britannic Majesty. The Indians, meantime, plundered Canseau; attacked Dartmouth, opposite

Halifax ; scalped some of the inhabitants, murdered nearly half the crews of two ships in Halifax harbour ; and carried off several prisoners, whom they sold at Louisburg. They were incessantly committing murders along the coasts ; and it was impossible to guard the colonists effectually against enemies, who sprung with the agility and fury of tigers from the thickets, or who came along silently in their birch canoes during night.

The commandant of Louisburg stated, as formerly, that he had no control over them, and that the premiums for English prisoners were given from motives of humanity, to prevent the horrible tortures which the savages would inflict upon them, or their excruciating death by the murderous scalping-knife.

Governor Cornwallis, however, considered the answer of the commandant of Louisburg mere finesse, to prevent remonstrances against the French government during peace. Many of the neutrals who were settled at Minas and Chignecto had also sworn allegiance to France, and were ready to join a force sent by De la Jonquire from Canada under M. la Corne, who had built forts at Minas and Bay de Vert.

Major Lawrence, who was despatched with a small detachment to Chignecto, found that the inhabitants, on learning that he was approaching, had burnt their houses, and joined La Corne ; and, after an unsatisfactory interview with this officer, he returned to Halifax. A force of one thousand men was in consequence sent to Chignecto under Major Lawrence, where he effected a landing with some difficulty and sharp skirmishing, and the loss of several men. The French and Indians saved themselves by escaping

across the river and joining La Corne. He then built a fort, which served to overawe the French, and to check the incursions of the Indians.

The French, however, built several other forts; and the Governor-General of Canada, as well as the commandant of Cape Breton, still persisted in encouraging the Indians and Acadian French in their depredations. The Court of France, on being repeatedly acquainted with these breaches of national faith during peace, promised immediate attention to the subject, and that no time should be lost in sending positive orders to Jonquire to remove all cause of remonstrance.

Dartmouth was, however, again surprised by the savages, who scalped many, and made prisoners of the majority, of the inhabitants; and, plundering the houses, escaped by the Shubenacadie lakes to the Bay of Fundy. The settlement of Lunenburg, at Malagash, formed by a colony of industrious Germans, was also harassed perpetually, and several of the inhabitants murdered, by the Indians.

Major Lawrence succeeded to the administration of the government in 1754; and, soon after, an expedition from New England, under the command of Colonel Monkton, proceeded to Chignecto, where he was joined by four ships of war and a detachment of regular troops. After bombarding and taking a block-house and battery, Fort Beau Séjour, which mounted twenty-six pieces of artillery, was stormed, and the garrison made prisoners and sent to Louisburg. The fort on Bay Vert was then invested and taken. In both, great stores of ammunition and provisions were found.

To secure the peace of the province, and to deprive

the Acadians from assisting the French or encouraging the Indians, it was determined by Governor Lawrence to remove them from Nova Scotia, unless they subscribed to the oath of allegiance in the fullest manner. Their conduct at Chignecto was considered indefensible, although they always declared that they were forced to join La Corne, or else lose their lands, which he claimed as within the limits of Canada. They never had taken the oath of allegiance, and could not be treated as rebels. They now expressed all humility, and begged to be allowed to remove to Canada or Cape Breton, if they were to be sent from Nova Scotia, which they loved, and in which they were happy. They offered willingly to swear allegiance, if they were exempted from bearing arms against their countrymen and the Indians.

Their case was certainly difficult to adjust. To permit them to remove either to Canada or Cape Breton would be adding great colonial strength to the enemies of Britain, as war had then commenced; and to allow them to remain in possession of their lands, situated in the most fertile part of the province, and commanding the easiest route for the French and Indians to enter Nova Scotia, was considered equally dangerous. The puritanical spirit of the English colonists, which distrusted the neutrality of Catholics, even under the sanction of an oath, consummated the difficult question.

The Acadians were, therefore, without any intimation as to the object of calling them together, commanded to appear before Colonel Winslow at Grand Prè; and, in consequence of this summons, about four hundred men assembled. They were then shut up in the church, now turned into a garrison,

in which they were told that they should be immediately removed from the province, to be distributed among the southern colonies, and that their lands and cattle were forfeited to the Crown.

There were at this time about twenty thousand Acadians inhabiting the rich and fertile lands of the province; they possessed upwards of sixty thousand head of horned cattle, seventy thousand sheep, fifty thousand hogs, besides horses. As their circumstances were equally removed from poverty and wealth, and their habits and education in the simple medium state, between barbarism and refinement, their condition probably embraced as much happiness as human nature admits. Many of them fled to the woods, and joined the Indians; others found their way to Canada and the island of St. John. Their villages were laid waste, and their houses burnt to ashes. The settlements at Chignecto and Minas were subjected to conflagration; and the wretched inhabitants, deprived of shelter, were obliged to submit, or fly to the woods, and finally escape to Canada, the island of St. John, or Cape Breton. From seven to eight thousand surrendered, to be disposed of by the British commander; and it must be mentioned, to the honour of a brave and excellent officer, that Colonel Winslow, in sending them away from a country to which they were so much attached, acted with more kindness and delicacy than his orders strictly allowed.*

The formidable preparations of France and England, to secure, by force, colonial ascendancy, occupied at this period the attention of all Europe. With England, it became a consideration paramount to

* See the condition of the Acadians in chap. v. b. 6.

all others, as its glory and prosperity seemed to rest on the die that should be cast by the fortune of this war.

Nova Scotia, in consequence of the commanding harbour of Halifax having become the rendezvous of the navy, and for some time the head-quarters of the forces, had now attained a summit of importance hitherto unknown in English estimation.

In the summer of 1757, a fleet of thirty-two ships and several transports, under the command of Admiral Holborne, arrived at Halifax, with five thousand troops, under Lord Howe; and Lord Loudon, on whom the chief command in America devolved, joined them with six thousand troops from New England. The grand object of these forces was the conquest of Louisburg and Canada; but the late discomfiture of the British troops near the Canadian lines, and the powerful fleet in the harbour of the formidable fortress of Louisburg, were considered wise grounds for deferring an attack until the following year. Meantime, Admiral Holborne proceeded with a fleet of twenty ships to reconnoitre off the harbour of Louisburg; but considering it imprudent to engage the French fleet at that time, he returned to Halifax. He soon after, with a reinforcement of four ships of the line, sailed for Louisburg; but the French admiral, secure within the harbour, and fully protected by the batteries, would not hazard an engagement, which alone might ruin the power of France in America. The British armament was destined to await a defeat from a more terrific power. While hovering on the Cape Breton coast, the whole English fleet was driven by a tremendous storm so near the rocks, that nothing but a sudden change of wind could have saved any

of the ships. One vessel, with about half the crew, was lost, ten dismasted, most of them threw their guns overboard; and in this disastrous condition they were compelled to bear away for England, where they arrived in a very disabled state.

Such was the unfortunate termination of this powerful and expensive expedition, that the conquest of Louisburg and Canada would have been, in all probability, abandoned, if the British government had not then had at the head of its councils a man whose mind misfortunes could not subdue, nor difficulties discourage.

Mr. Pitt was this year appointed premier, and his almost superhuman sagacity quickly perceived, that if Great Britain did not humble France, by conquering Cape Breton and Canada, the splendid sun of England would be obscured by the ruin of our American and West Indian commerce, and the loss of the British colonies.

The vast importance of these possessions never, until he expired in their cause, forsook the mind of that great statesman; his memory deserves to be immortalised by having a monument erected to it in every town and hamlet, and by having his political life made a part of general knowledge taught to every child born in North America. The measures he adopted on the return of Admiral Holborne astonished Europe. In less than five months, a formidable fleet was equipped, and ordered to sail without delay for Halifax. This glorious force, consisting of one hundred and fifty-two ships, commanded by Admiral Boscawen, and having on board an army of fourteen thousand regular troops, under General Amherst, arrived safe at that port in April, where

they were joined by the provincial troops. On the 28th of May, this combined armament, consisting of one hundred and fifty-seven ships, and sixteen thousand troops, sailed from Halifax, and arrived five days after at Gabarus Bay. The conquest of Louisburg, which followed, and which I will observe fully in my account. in this work of Cape Breton, with the surrender of St. John's Island, secured the prosperity of Nova Scotia; and Governor Lawrence was enabled, on his return from Cape Breton, to attend to the civil affairs of the province.

The administration of government had hitherto been altogether vested in the Governor and Council. A House of Representatives was this year (1758) formed, agreeably to the constitution granted the colony. All the encouragement that the circumstances of the country would admit, was also offered to settlers by the Governor's proclamation.

The conquest of Quebec by the expedition from Halifax under the immortal Wolfe, and the final subjection of Canada, gave complete security to Nova Scotia; the settlement and peace of which, since that important epoch in American history, has neither been disturbed by the intrigues of France, nor by the more terrible hostilities of the Indians.

Governor Lawrence died in the autumn of 1760. His administration was conscientiously upright; and his exertions in promoting the prosperity of the province were truly praiseworthy. He was, therefore, much esteemed, and justly regretted.

In consequence of the arrangements made by Governor Lawrence, the settlement of the colony advanced steadily; and the prosperity of the inhabitants was secured by the protection and assistance

of government. As lands in favourable situations in New England became scarce, many of the redundant inhabitants removed to Nova Scotia, and formed the basis of an industrious and respectable population. Emigration from Ireland flowed afterwards into the province, and a few settlers arrived about the same time from Scotland. A road was opened from Halifax to the settlements in the Bay of Fundy, in the execution of which the troops assisted.

Arrangements were also entered into in order to place the trade with the Indians on a scale which would secure justice to the savages; and a treaty was accordingly entered into with them, by which they acknowledged submission and allegiance to the crown of England.

Two years after the death of Governor Lawrence, the news of St. John's and same other places in Newfoundland having been taken by the French, alarmed the inhabitants of Nova Scotia with the apprehension of invasion; and so far agitated the nerves of the president administering the government, that he laid an embargo on the shipping, proclaimed martial law, and resolved on removing the remaining Acadian French from the province. These unfortunate people were accordingly surprised at their peaceful agricultural pursuits, and led by the military to Halifax, from whence they were sent in transports to New England. The inhabitants of Boston, however, would not allow them to land and become a burden on the province; and they were consequently sent back to Halifax, where they were landed, and allowed to settle in the colony, as St. John's and the other places in Newfoundland were retaken by the British.

CHAP. VI.

PEACE OF 1763. — STAMP-ACT SUBMITTED TO IN NOVA SCOTIA.
— LORD WILLIAM CAMPBELL, GOVERNOR. — DOCK-YARD. —
PEACE WITH THE UNITED STATES. — FLEET WITH LOYALISTS
ARRIVE IN NOVA SCOTIA.

By the treaty of Paris in 1763, France relinquished all claim to Nova Scotia, Newfoundland, Cape Breton, St. John's Island, and Canada; and from that period these countries have formed a part of the British empire in America.

An Irish settlement was formed by one Alexander M'Nutt, this year, on the north side of Minas Basin, and named by the settlers, or by some Irish families settled there two years before, Londonderry. The following year, the same adventurer began a settlement at Port Roseway, to which he gave the pious name of New Jerusalem. It did not flourish; it has been long forgotten, and even its name has vanished. A general survey of British America, by order of government, was commenced this year, but never completed. Several new townships were laid out in Nova Scotia, and granted to various individuals, who generally neglected to settle upon them; but the troubles which began at this time to agitate the New England colonies, occasioned many to remove and settle in Nova Scotia.

In 1765, the famous stamp-act, which was publicly burnt at Boston, and resisted in all the southern

colonies, was submitted to in Nova Scotia and in Canada; and both these provinces remained firm in their loyalty during the whole revolutionary war.

The island of St. John was separated from the jurisdiction of Nova Scotia in 1767, and erected into a distinct government, and new seals for each were sent to the respective governors.

Lord William Campbell, who was appointed governor of the province in 1760, sent the surveyor-general, in 1769, to New York, with information respecting the vacant lands in Nova Scotia, and the encouragement that emigrants might expect by settling in the colony. The dock-yard also, which was established some years before, was extended, and supplied with all necessary stores for the navy.

The militia was regularly trained, and held in readiness during the whole war; and two corps of provincial troops were raised for the defence of the colony. The inhabitants signed, unanimously, a declaration of loyalty, which was sent to his Majesty, and received with great approbation. Copies of it were distributed throughout the realm.

In 1773, Lord William Campbell, being appointed governor of South Carolina, was succeeded in the administration of Nova Scotia by Francis Legge, Esq., as governor. At this time the population of the province was estimated at nineteen thousand, which included about two thousand Acadians. Such was the fear of popish ascendancy at this period, that Lord Dartmouth, the secretary of state for the colonies, ordered the governor not to grant lands to a Roman Catholic, until the case had been made sufficiently known to his Majesty. The Americans burnt and plundered the fort and settlement of St. John in

1775; and, during the same year, they plundered Charlotte Town, and carried off as prisoners the president and some other officers: on their arrival in New England, they were, however, kindly treated, and politely released by General Washington. With the exception of the capture of a vessel at Pictou, afterwards retaken, and the attack upon Lunenburg, the Americans gave no further annoyance to Nova Scotia.

The Indians, who assembled at this time in vast numbers on the River St. John, threatened hostilities against the English inhabitants; but they were appeased by presents, and have never since attempted any act of depredation.

In the autumn of 1781-2, Mr. John Parr was appointed governor; and, in January following, the acknowledgment of the independence of the United States by Great Britain, formed a most important era in the history and settlement of Nova Scotia. Immediately after the treaty of peace, the province received an accession of American loyalists as settlers*, who may be said with great truth to have established the foundation of its prosperity. These men brought along with them industrious habits, large sums of money, vessels, merchandise, cattle, and furniture; and most of them being intelligent men, the courts of justice and the legislature became, consequently, more respectable than in most new colonies.

* In all, about 18,000.

CHAP. VII.

DIVISION OF THE COLONY. — NEW BRUNSWICK AND CAPE BRETON CREATED DISTINCT COLONIES. — SHELburnE BUILT. — PACKETS ESTABLISHED. — ERECTED INTO A BISHOP'S SEE. — HIS PRESENT MAJESTY, THEN DUKE OF CLARENCE, ENTERAINED AT HALIFAX. — WINDSOR COLLEGE FOUNDED. — SIR JOHN WENTWORTH GOVERNOR. — NEGROES REMOVED TO SIERRA LEONE. — DUKE OF KENT. — GOVERNORS, SIR GEORGE PREVOST, SIR JOHN COAPE SHERBROOKE, EARL DALHOUSIE, SIR JAMES KEMPT, SIR PEREGRINE MAITLAND.

IN 1784, New Brunswick and Cape Breton were detached from Nova Scotia, and constituted separate governments. This measure was much complained of by the inhabitants of Halifax, as reducing the province to the peninsula, and thereby limiting the jurisdiction of its government. On the following year a whale fishery was established by the settlers at Dartmouth, who came from Nantucket; and the town of Shelburne, at Port Roseway, rose up as by enchantment, having a population of twelve thousand in a few months, where no habitations had previously existed. Saw-mills and grist-mills were also built in all the settlements in which there was a population sufficient to pay the attendant expenses. A line of packets between Falmouth and Halifax was also established this year, and an alien duty of 18*l.* laid on oil imported to the United Kingdom from the United States, as an encouragement to the fisheries of the British colonies. The boundaries of lands were also adjusted

and described; and various public improvements either completed or commenced.

Nova Scotia was then erected into a bishop's see, and the first bishop, Dr. Charles Ingles, appointed in 1787. His present majesty was this year at Halifax, and entertained at a dinner and ball by the legislature. Among other public matters, a seminary of education, supported by legislative enactment, was established at Windsor, and, two years after, funds were appropriated for purchasing ground and building a college at the same place.

In 1792, Sir John Wentworth was appointed to succeed governor Parr; and the finances and the population of the province enabled the government soon after to open the great western road to Pictou. This was an undertaking of much labour, and its accomplishment of the utmost advantage to the inhabitants.

A mistaken philanthropy occasioned the removal during this year of the free blacks from Nova Scotia to Sierra Leone, where most of them died soon after. In consequence of the war with France, which commenced in 1793, Halifax became again an important rendezvous for the British squadrons on the coasts of America, and a provincial corps was also raised and trained. The first ships of war captured and brought into Halifax, were *La Raison* and *La Prevoyant*, belonging to a squadron bound to Guadaloupe, and taken by his Majesty's ship *Thetis*, the honourable Captain Cochrane, and the Hussar, Captain Beresford, in May, 1795.

The exertions of his royal highness the late Duke of Kent, while he resided in Nova Scotia, should not be forgotten. On leaving Nova Scotia, previously

to his appointment to the chief command of the army in America, the legislature voted 500*l.* for the purchase of a star, as a mark of their esteem for him. He afterwards returned, and remained in the province until the year 1800.

Nova Scotia has been peculiarly fortunate in having had its administration intrusted generally to good, and in most instances to great men.

Sir George Prevost, who succeeded Governor Wentworth in 1808, directed with great ability the resources of the province into proper channels. He introduced greater order into the public departments; established schools in all the principal settlements; carried into successful operation a new plan for training the militia; founded that superb edifice, the "Province Building;" had new roads opened, and the old ones repaired and improved; and promoted whatever appeared beneficial to the agriculture, trade, and fisheries of the colony. On the promotion of Governor Prevost to Canada in 1811, he was succeeded by Sir John Coape Sherbrooke, who, with equally good judgment, and with perhaps still greater ability, governed the province during the American war, and until 1817.

The Little Belt being fired into on the 16th May, 1811, by the United States ship *President*, and sixteen men being killed, and twenty-one wounded, may be considered the prelude to the last American war. The pride of the Americans was also wounded in 1807, by his Majesty's ship *Leopold* firing into the Chesapeake, which surrendered; and out of which several English deserters were taken, one of whom was tried by a court-martial, and hanged at Halifax.

The war commenced on the part of the Americans, by a squadron of the United States ships chasing and firing into his Majesty's ship *Belvidera*, on board of which the captain and eighteen seamen were wounded and two killed. Letters of marque were soon after granted; and the privateers fitted out from the ports of Nova Scotia were very successful in making captures. Eastport was taken, in July, 1816, by a squadron commanded by Sir Thomas Hardy, and the 102d regiment, and a detachment of artillery from Nova Scotia; and, in August following, an expedition, commanded by Sir John Coape Sherbrooke, sailed from Halifax for Castine, on the river Penobscot, which immediately surrendered. The *John Adams*, an American frigate, which lay at anchor in the harbour, was set on fire, to prevent her falling into the hands of the English. Machias soon after surrendered; and the militia and inhabitants of the coast, about one hundred miles in extent, on agreeing not to bear arms against his Majesty during the war, were not further molested. This district of country was restored to the United States by the treaty of Ghent.

Whatever want of gallantry and bravery may be attributed to the American soldiers, during the last war, and which, no doubt, arose from the absence of discipline and subordination—for no one can charge the Americans generally with cowardice—they certainly displayed no want of heroism and bravery in their naval actions. They fought as if determined to evince that they had not degenerated from the stock they grew from, and as if proud to have an opportunity to prove the same by personal prowess and moral courage.

The most brilliant action, perhaps, on record, is that between his Majesty's frigate Shannon and the United States frigate Chesapeake, which only lasted *eleven minutes*.

Neither were there wanting instances of polite observance and humane consideration. The frontier inhabitants of Maine, being aware that carrying on hostilities against the border inhabitants of New Brunswick would answer no purpose but the destruction of personal property and the calamity of private families, expressed their disposition not to enter into such warfare; and the governor of Nova Scotia issued his proclamation, forbidding the subjects of his Majesty in Nova Scotia and New Brunswick to injure those on the frontiers of Maine. The bodies of Captain Lawrence and Lieutenant Ludlow of the Chesapeake, who were buried at Halifax, were also allowed to be disinterred, during the war, and carried to Salem, and afterwards to New York, where they were reburied with great pomp and solemnity. Mr. Munro, the president, ordered, at the same time, that no British vessel going to the station at Sable Island should be molested.

Sir John Coape Sherbrooke was promoted to the chief command in Canada in 1816. His administration was altogether distinguished by great and useful measures. No man's integrity could be more inflexible, nor could any governor be more indefatigable in all public duties. The legislature of Nova Scotia voted 1000*l.* for purchasing a sword, to be presented to him.

The Earl of Dalhousie, who succeeded to the government, held the administration until 1820, when he was appointed to the government of Canada.

His administration was exceedingly agreeable to the people of Nova Scotia, and his conciliating manners, and amiable, benevolent disposition, made him generally beloved. His amiable Countess will also be long remembered in Nova Scotia. During his lordship's administration, the central board of agriculture was formed at Halifax; Dalhousie College founded; and under his auspices the agricultural resources of the country began to be properly appreciated. He also granted 1000*l.* of the Castine fund, to establish a library for the use of the army at Halifax. On his departure, the House of Assembly granted 1000*l.* for the purchase of a sword and star to present him.

Sir James Kempt, who succeeded Lord Dalhousie in Nova Scotia, and afterwards, in September, 1828, in Canada, was considered to be better acquainted with business in detail, than any of his predecessors. From the time he entered upon the administration of Nova Scotia, the agriculture, trade, and general prosperity of the province, have maintained a regular and thriving progress; and various undertakings, connected either with the internal improvement of the colony, the encouragement of agriculture, or whatever may be considered beneficial to the general interests of the country, have been accomplished, or are in the progress of being completed.

Cape Breton was reannexed to the province; a bank established at Halifax; a commercial society, and chamber of commerce, founded; the cutting of the Shubenacadie canal commenced; Courts of Session formed in the counties; a line of packets established between Halifax and Liverpool; and a South Sea whale-fishery commenced, during Sir James Kempt's government.

Sir Peregrine Maitland, previously lieutenant-governor of Upper Canada, is the present governor of Nova Scotia. His administration seems to be mild, just, and agreeable to the inhabitants.

The people of Nova Scotia have, perhaps more than those of any other British colony, united earnestly with their governors in carrying forward and accomplishing any measure of public utility which they undertook; and to this co-operation may, in a great measure, be ascribed the absence of political difficulties, and the harmony for which this province has been so long and so justly distinguished.

We must also add, that the province has been peculiarly fortunate in the uprightness of the judges, and in the honesty, respectability, and intelligence of most of those who have been members of the Council and Legislative Assembly.

CHAP. VIII.

CONSTITUTION. — GOVERNMENT. — ADMINISTRATION OF THE LAWS. — REPRESENTATION OF THE TOWNS AND COUNTIES. — DEFENCE OF THE COLONY. — MILITIA. — REVENUE. — QUIT RENTS. — STATUTE LABOUR. — POOR RATES. — PUBLIC BURDENS, ETC.

THE constitution of Nova Scotia is, by royal commission, a representative provincial government, one of the three original forms of colonial constitutions. Its legislature is a transcript of that of the United Kingdom, and vested in three estates; the Governor representing the King, the Council representing the House of Lords, and the Legislative Assembly representing the Commons' House of Parliament.

The lieutenant-governor* is commander-in-chief within the province, and independent of any other in civil authority, except when the governor-general is present, which seldom occurs, unless it be in the form of a visit, and then he assumes no authority. The king appoints the governor, and all public acts are issued and executed in his Majesty's name. The governor of Nova Scotia is by rank a lieutenant-general in the army, and is styled, "His Excellency the Lieutenant-

* The designation of lieutenant-governor may be considered the same as governor, as he is commander-in-chief within the province. The Governor of Canada, being Captain-general of British America, does not interfere with the administration of the other colonies.

governor and Commander-in-chief in and over his Majesty's province of Nova Scotia and its dependencies, Chancellor and Vice-admiral of the same," &c. &c. &c. Before entering office, he takes the oath of allegiance, and also the oath of office for the due and faithful execution of the trust confided in him, and for the impartial administration of the laws. He is sworn before the council, or any three members of council. The governor receives, on his appointment, or with his commission, a sort of code, called "the royal instructions," to guide him in his administration. Should he violate his duties by misrule, or by injuring or distressing his Majesty's subjects, the course to follow, for the purpose of obtaining redress, is either by petition to the king or to the parliament, or else by action in the King's Bench.

The governor's powers are very extensive. He is commander-in-chief of the regular forces and militia within his government; he holds in custody the great seal of the province, is Chancellor of the Court of Chancery, and can extend the king's pardon to criminals. He presides in the Court of Error, summons the Provincial Assembly, nominates the high sheriff and justices of peace, suspends officers of the crown, grants licences of marriage and probates of wills. He is also vice-admiral within the limits of his government. The crown pays a fixed salary to the governor, but the legislature has also settled a sum to be allowed him to support the becoming dignity of his high station. The salary from the crown may in fact be considered as paid by the province, out of its casual revenue, as only 800*l.* is now paid towards the whole civil list by England, and this may, or will, soon be withdrawn.

The council, besides their legislative duties, occupy the same place, in relation to the governor, that the privy council does to the king. The members are appointed either by his Majesty's *mandamus*, or by the governor's nomination, to be afterwards approved of by the king, and are styled honourable. They are also justices of the peace throughout the province, and must take the usual oaths, as well as those of office. The council constitutes with the governor a Court of Appeal, or Court of Error, and also a Court of Marriage and Divorce. The senior councillor assumes the administration of government on the demise of the governor, or in his absence from the province.

The Legislative Assembly is a body formed of members elected by the inhabitants holding an annual interest of forty shillings in land, or who are householders, as their representatives. This assembly is considered to correspond, in respect to the province, in jurisdiction, privileges, duration, and parliamentary usage, with the Commons' House of Parliament. All money bills should originate in the House of Assembly. Acts of the Provincial Legislature, without a suspending clause, or that affect descent, marriage, &c. &c., must have the royal allowance to become a statute. Forty-one members represent the province. When Cape Breton was re-annexed to Nova Scotia as a county, Mr. Lawrence Kavannagh, a most respectable and worthy man, was one of the two elected; and being a Catholic, the usual test oaths were dispensed with, in respect to him, by his Majesty. *

* It appears that the Catholic Bill of 1829 does not extend to the Catholics in the colonies, and, in consequence, the colonial legislatures have provided for this circumstance.

The impartial administration of the laws, if these laws be just, is assuredly the highest privilege which the colonies can enjoy. Nova Scotia has been eminently blessed in the uprightness and abilities of the judges of its courts. All causes, both civil and criminal, are determined according to the common and statute law of England, and the statute laws of the province. The courts of law, therefore, are constituted to correspond with those of England. The practice of the Court of Chancery is also the same as that of England; and although the governors, who are chancellors of this court in all the colonies, are generally unacquainted with law or with chancery practice, yet, from deciding according to what appears to them to be just, on the rational principles of right and wrong, there is no doubt but their conclusions are as often correct as those of the lord chancellor would be. The absolute power which this court vests in the chancellor has, however, been most wantonly and tyrannically exercised by one or two colonial governors, but never in Nova Scotia.

The Supreme Court of Judicature is modelled after the Court of King's Bench, the practice of which is strictly adhered to. The jurisdiction of this court extends to all parts of the province, and it may be said to embrace also the powers of the Courts of Exchequer and Common Pleas. The chief justice is paid by government, the assistant judges out of the colonial treasury. The venerable Chief Justice Blowers, after presiding thirty-three years on the bench of this court, has lately (1833) resigned. His high legal attainments, impartial firmness of decision, and the excellence of his private character, must ever endear him to the inhabitants of Nova Scotia. He is suc-

ceeded by the Honourable B. Haliburton, long an able assistant judge.

There is also a Court of Common Pleas in each county, the jurisdiction of which only extends to civil actions within the county. Magistrates take cognisance of breaches of the peace, and of matters of debt not exceeding five pounds. Appeals from the inferior courts may be made to the Supreme Court, from thence to the governor and council, who compose a Court of Error and Appeal, and from thence to England. In each county there is also a Court of Session. The Court of Admiralty has, since the last war, become little more than the mere name. Piracies are tried by special commission; but for some years no convictions have taken place.

The bankrupt laws do not extend to the colonies, nor is there in Nova Scotia any law which affords an unfortunate honest debtor the release which is obtained in England, and which gives an industrious man the free exercise of his abilities in directing his labour and talents to productive or money-making pursuits. On the contrary, when a man in the colonies becomes unfortunate in trade, and unable to pay his debts, he is often imprisoned, and finally driven, by poverty and desperation, either out of the country, or, if he remains afterwards in the colony, as his property is always liable, he evades attachment by owning nothing in his own name. From this circumstance has arisen a great share of that spirit of scheming and overreaching so frequently complained of as prevailing in the United States, and which unfortunately is also to be often discovered in all the British colonies that have legislatures of their own, and hitherto seldom in Newfoundland, where an act

of the Imperial Parliament operated much in the same way as the bankrupt laws in England.

A provincial law in Nova Scotia, called the "Insolvent Debtor's Act," generally relieves the debtor from imprisonment, but the fruits of his industry afterwards are always liable, if the demands be renewed every seven years. A law which the good sense of the legislature of the province lately repealed, operated, and was most justly complained of, for many years. This law enabled a creditor who merely swore to his claim, to attach the property of his debtor, and consequently ruin his credit and blast his hopes and comfort, before proving his debt by a judgment of court. By this means, merchants and others certainly were enabled to obtain payment of debts that they would otherwise probably not have recovered, but such a law gave a bad man too much power over the property of others, and many an industrious, honest individual, who would have surmounted, with time, all his difficulties, has been ruined by its operation.

At present, the laws of the province are generally judicious, and, as far as they go, with the exception mentioned, certainly calculated for the condition and prosperity of the colony. That there is too frequent recurrence to law is true, but experience and time will likely destroy this American mania, and Nova Scotia approaches nearer, in most respects, to the customs and ideas most approved in England, than any other part of America.

At the bar of the judicial courts a very fair share of rhetorical and legal knowledge is conspicuous. The present attorney-general, Mr. Archibald, who is also speaker of the Legislative Assembly, is particularly

distinguished as an eloquent and powerful orator. Formerly, admission as a barrister or attorney to the courts was too easily obtained; but an institution, established in 1825, formed of the judges, crown officers, and members of the bar, stamps respectability on the profession, by regulating the necessary acquirements of those who apply for admission as attorneys or barristers.

The representative constitution of Nova Scotia made it necessary to divide the province into counties, and that the county towns that should send members to the Assembly should be named. These regulations were accordingly adopted; but, in consequence of the country becoming populous, since the first Legislative Assembly met, in many parts which at that time contained no inhabitants, several alterations have been made in the representation of the province.

The extent of the province required also that it should be divided into districts or circuits for holding the courts of law. Besides these, lesser divisions have been made, called townships, but they might with equal propriety be called parishes, as they merely, without regard to extent of land, as in Canada or in the United States, embrace the population of a certain division of a county, for the purpose of meeting annually, to take into consideration the condition of any poor people who may be among them, and to vote small sums for their relief or support.

The counties into which Nova Scotia is now divided, are, including Cape Breton, ten, viz. :—

The county of Halifax, divided again into the three districts of Halifax, Pictou, and Colchester, represented in the Provincial Assembly by nine members;—four for the county, two for the town of

Halifax, and one each for the towns of Truro, Onslow, and Londonderry.

The county of Annapolis, which contains two districts, is represented by five members ;—two for the county, and one for each of the towns of Annapolis, Grenville, and Digby.

The county of Shelburne contains two districts, and sends five members to the Assembly ;—two for the county, and one for each of the towns of Shelburne, Barrington, and Yarmouth.

Queen's county sends two members to the Assembly for the county, and one for the town of Liverpool.

The county of Lunenburg sends also three members to the Assembly, one of which is for the town of Lunenburg.

King's county is represented by two members for the county, and one each for the towns of Horton and Cornwallis.

The county of Hants sends two members for the county ; and three members represent the towns of Windsor, Falmouth, and Newport.

The county of Cumberland is considered as unfairly represented, in proportion to its population, sending only three members to the Assembly, one of which is for the town of Amherst.

The town of Sidney sends only two members to represent it.

Cape Breton is also confined to the election of two members. This is certainly a most unequal representation ; but the interests of Cape Breton being, in fact, those of the province generally, will no doubt be guarded by the legislature ; and until there are men of more wealth among the inhabitants, who can afford to devote the time required, as their represent-

atives, to legislative duties, it may probably be as well for the county to be represented by no more members. It might, it is true, be represented by additional members resident at Halifax ; but it would not then follow that the interests of the county would be more faithfully attended to.

The military force, stationed in the province, consists of, the greater part of three regiments of the line, and a detachment of artillery, which, with the provincial militia, and the ships of war on the station, secure the defence of the colony against any ordinary invasion.

The governor for the time being is commander-in-chief of the whole forces. Sir George Prevost was, however, the first governor who carried into execution an effective plan for training the militia.

The militia law is continued from year to year. By its regulations, every male between the age of sixteen and sixty years is subject to enrolment for military service, but not to be led involuntarily out of the province.

The organised militia, including that of Cape Breton, may be estimated at 35,000 effective men, which form together twelve companies of artillery, and thirty-three battalions of infantry. No troops of cavalry, which I could find no satisfactory reason to account for, have as yet been formed.

The governor appoints all the militia officers ; the highest rank is that of lieutenant-colonel.

The only officers who are remunerated for their services are, three inspecting-field officers, the adjutant-general on the general staff, and the adjutant on the regimental staff. They are all paid, as well as the cost of the fire-arms of the privates, by the pro-

vincial treasury, and not by the imperial government.

With the exception of the artillery and flank-companies at Halifax, the militia of Nova Scotia exhibit a most unmilitary appearance. This does not arise, however, either from defect of moral or physical powers; for in both they are not excelled by any equal body of men in Europe. The English retain all the pride and courage of old England's yeomanry. The Celts of Nova Scotia are as brave and hardy as the Highlanders of Caledonia; and crossing the Atlantic Ocean has destroyed neither the fire nor the gallantry of the Hibernians; while the American loyalists and natives of the provinces possess all the spirit that holds danger in contempt.

Since the peace, the militia musters are merely meetings, where little more is done than calling over the roll; and as to the training, it is absolutely the very acme of burlesque. The arms have been called in, and lodged in depôts to rust at Halifax; a very injudicious measure, although resorted to for their preservation, as many were said to be lost, and even sold by the militia-men, to whom they were issued. Fire-arms would, very likely, be frequently carried away by those who removed from one province to another, and used on all occasions in the woods, along the shore, or on board vessels; but preventing the inhabitants from doing so, can only be considered ill-judged economy.

The skill which the militia-men of North America attain in the use of fire-arms, merely by the practice of shooting wild beasts and birds, makes them more dreadful enemies in a wooded country than any troops in Europe would be; and it is absurd to

check the means of acquiring such experience, by calling in the fire-arms.

The provincial revenue, amounting to about 62,000*l.*, is raised by impost duties of $2\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. *ad valorem* on goods, and something additional on wine and spirits. It is collected at the excise office, and appropriated by the Legislature. There is also an imperial or casual revenue, collected by the customs on imports, out of which the executive pays the civil list.*

Trifling poor-rates are collected, for the support of a few paupers. A provincial statute requires that each inhabitant, from sixteen to sixty, should perform three or four days' labour, either personally or by substitution, on the public roads; this is certainly no grievance.

The public burdens of the province are in fact so light, and the trifling impost duties, which are confined to articles of luxury, so unimportant, that we can in no country find the inhabitants placed, in these respects, under more favourable circumstances.

The public expenditure must vary hereafter very greatly in its details, as the whole sum now paid by the British Treasury, for the support of the provincial establishment of Nova Scotia, is only 800*l.*; and the legislature will cheerfully pay that mite. So that those who complain of this colony as expensive to Great Britain are quite in error.

* See list of receipts and expenditure, salaries, &c., vol. ii. b. 4.

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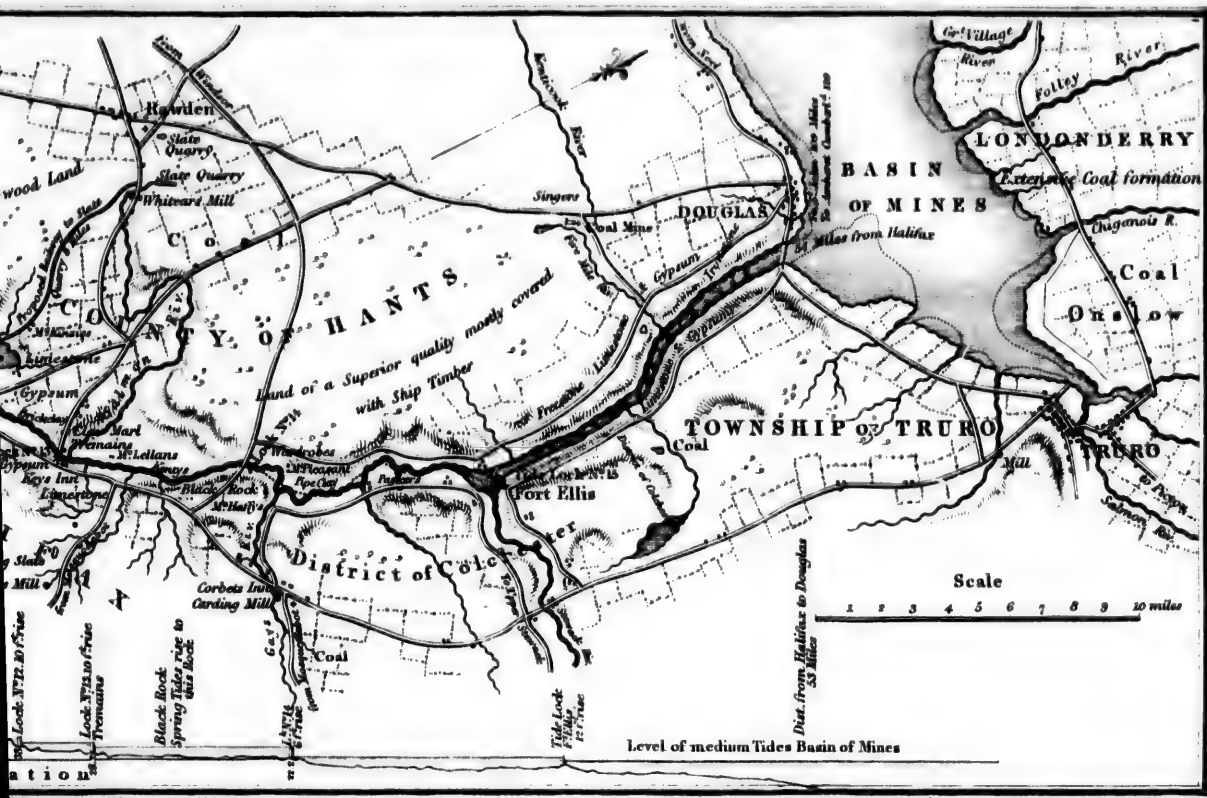
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CHAP. IX.

DESCRIPTION OF HALIFAX. — SOCIETY. — MANNERS AND AMUSEMENTS. — PUBLIC ESTABLISHMENTS. — INSTITUTIONS. — INTERCOURSE WITH EUROPE, UNITED STATES, WEST INDIES, AND NORTHERN COLONIES. — TRADE. — CHAMBER OF COMMERCE. — WHALE SHIPS, ETC.

On the south-east coast of Nova Scotia, in latitude $44^{\circ} 40'$ N., and longitude $63^{\circ} 40'$ W., and nearly equidistant from its extreme points, Halifax harbour enters the province. It is at all seasons accessible, and its navigation scarcely ever interrupted by ice. On a small island off Sambro Head, on the west side of the entrance, stands a lighthouse; and another light has lately been established on Sherbrooke Tower, which stands on Magher's Beach, a spit extending from Mac Nab's Island: when this light can be seen, ships are at a safe distance from a dangerous shoal called Thrum Cap, and may run into the harbour without fear. The bay, from which the entrance of the harbour leads, is formed between Sambro Head and Devil's Island. There are four islands still farther in; on the smallest of these, which is nearly opposite the town, there are batteries strongly mounted, and several other fortifications command the harbour. The passage to the harbour on the west side of Mac Nab's Island, is that for large ships; the other, on the east, has only water for schooners. There is sufficient water for ships of war between Mac Nab's

SHUBENACADIE CANAL, for Mc Gregor's British America.



Island and George's Island. The main channel is guarded by York Redoubt, Sherbrooke Tower, and several other batteries. The eastern passage is defended by a strongly built stone fort, called East Battery. Carrol's or Macnamara's Island is fertile, with picturesque clumps of wood growing on it. MacNab's Island, containing about 1000 acres of good land, is under partial cultivation, and prettily wooded.

The town of Halifax is built on the east side of a peninsula, on the declivity of a hill, which rises gradually from the water on the west side of the harbour. In length it is rather more than two miles, and about half a mile in breadth. The streets are wide, and cross each other, generally at right angles, — but that only next the water is paved; most of the others, however, are macadamised, and from the ascent and nature of the ground, usually dry; but in summer, the dust, which is often whirled furiously along by the winds, is exceedingly disagreeable.

The appearance of Halifax from the water, or from the opposite shore, is prepossessing and animated. The front of the town is lined with wharfs, alongside of which vessels of all sizes, and variously rigged, are incessantly discharging or loading their cargoes.* Warehouses rise over the wharfs, as well

* When at Halifax, a short time after the war, I went down to the wharfs to see the hull of a foreign ship, I think Dutch, apparently of more than 1000 tons register, which was captured by some of our cruisers. This huge vessel was hauled, by the person who purchased her, until well grounded alongside of a wharf, and then roofed over the deck, in the same way as the warehouses are. Doors were cut in the side, and the spaces between decks, and under the roof, converted into warehouse rooms, below which there were stables for cart and truck horses;

as in different parts of the town ; and dwelling-houses and public buildings rear their heads over each other as they stretch along and up the sides of the hill. The spires of different churches ; the building above the town, in which the town clock is fixed ; a rotunda-built church ; the signal-posts on Citadel Hill ; the different batteries ; the variety of style in which the houses are built, some of which are painted white, some blue, some red, and some built of brick and stone, intermixed with those built of wood ; rows of trees showing themselves in different parts of the town ; his Majesty's ships moored opposite the dock-yard ; the establishments and tall sheers of the latter ; the merchant ships under sail, at anchor, or alongside the wharfs ; the wooded and rocky scenery of the background ; with the islands, and the small pretty town of Dartmouth on the eastern shore, are all objects which strike most forcibly on the view of a stranger, when sailing up the harbour.

The number of dwelling-houses is estimated at about 1800, the public buildings 84, and the population, exclusive of the army and navy*, about 18,000.

The houses are very irregularly built, some being one, some two, some three, and a few four stories high. Handsome stone and brick buildings are built and furnished in the English style ; and many of the houses built of wood are really more imposing in

and if I recollect well, there was a tannery in one end. This vessel was afterwards burnt by accident, when it was discovered she had a double set of timbers.

* There is generally the greater part of three regiments, a company of artillery, a numerous staff, and some ships of war, at Halifax.

their appearance, being large, neatly finished, and painted white, than the best stone houses. The wooden houses are lathed, plastered, papered, and finished within, in the same manner as stone or brick houses. Fires have at different times destroyed very many of the old wooden buildings; and although individuals were, in consequence, subjected to great loss and inconvenience, yet the town, from having stone or brick houses built on the site of the former wooden ones, has greatly improved.

About a mile above the upper end of the town the harbour becomes very narrow, but again widens into a splendid sheet of water, called Bedford Basin, the surrounding scenery of which, although not highly romantic, is agreeably varied and beautifully picturesque. This basin forms a harbour, in which a thousand ships can anchor with shelter and safety.* On the west side, the late Duke of Kent, when commanding in North America, erected a handsome residence, with corresponding out-houses, offices, &c.; and the grounds, naturally beautiful, he laid out with much taste. The road to Windsor, from which the great western road branches, leads past this villa.

The north-west arm, which branches off from the main entrance of the harbour, is about four miles long, something less than half a mile in width, with ten to twenty fathoms depth of water, and with safe anchorage. It winds in the rear of the town, until within half a mile of Bedford Basin, forming the land between it and the harbour into the peninsula of Halifax. A small island lies near the mouth

* See the map facing the beginning of this chapter.

of the north-west arm, within which a chain was stretched across, during the war, to prevent the entrance of hostile vessels. Near the head lies Melville Island, connected to the peninsula by a bridge. On this islet are buildings, now decaying fast, in which prisoners of war were lodged. Opposite, among the bushes, are the humble *tumuli*, which swell over the remains of those whom the mere game of war deprived of liberty, and whose destiny it was to be only released from captivity by death.

Several streams issue into the north-west arm, on one of which there are mills built. The formation of the peninsula of Halifax is little more than a vast rock of hard bluish clay slate, impregnated with iron, which imparts to nearly all the water a hard metallic taste. There are, however, a few wells of good water. Great labour and expense have at length succeeded in converting most of the peninsula from naked rocks to fertile fields; but the greatest part of the soil has been formed by artificial means.

At the south end of the town is the "Government House," so named from being the residence of the governor of the province. The appearance of this structure is baronial, rather than elegant; the stone of which it is built, though tolerably well polished, is of a sombre colour, which imparts a gloomy and rather antique character to the building.

The most splendid edifice in North America is, certainly, the "Province Building" of Nova Scotia. It stands nearly in the centre of Halifax, in the middle of a square, which is enclosed with neat iron railing. The size of this superb building is at present, perhaps, too great for the public affairs of the

province ; but it must be considered built as well for the use of posterity, as for the present day ; and that it is situated in the metropolis of a country, the population of which is multiplying rapidly. Its length is 140 feet, breadth 70 feet, and the height of the walls 45 feet. Its plan combines elegance with strength and utility. The columns are of the Ionic order ; and the beautiful freestone, quarried in the province, of which it is built, is finely polished. It contains chambers for the Council and Legislative Assembly ; the Supreme Court, with its appendant offices ; and also, all the provincial offices, as the treasurer's, surveyor-general's, colonial secretary's, &c. &c. ; the Halifax public library, &c.

The admiral's house is a plain stone building, at the north end of the town, and on an eminence above the dock-yard, commanding a view of the harbour, telegraphs, and shipping. It is the residence of the admiral, for the time being, commanding the squadron on the American station. There is also a respectable large wooden building at the south end of the town, for the use of the military commandant. The north and south barracks, built also of wood, are sufficiently extensive to accommodate three regiments. Connected with the barracks is an excellent library, for the use of the military. The other government buildings are, the ordnance and commissariat stores ; the military hospital, a large respectable building, erected under the direction of the late Duke of Kent ; the dock-yard, &c. The naval hospital was burnt down some time ago.

His Majesty's dock-yard in Halifax is the most respectable establishment of the kind out of England.

Its plan is extensive, and embraces within the stone wall which surrounds it on the land side, all that is useful and convenient for repairing and refitting the largest ships.* Attached to it is the residence of the commissioner, a respectable-looking house. Never was there a more egregious measure entered upon, than that of removing the greater part of the naval stores from Halifax, for the purpose of establishing a dock-yard at Bermuda, for the use of his Majesty's ships on the American station; the absurdity of which is too palpable not to be seen into at once by all who have any knowledge of both places. Halifax has the best harbour in North America, in a healthy climate, and in the centre of countries abounding in timber, and all kinds of provisions, at low prices. The Bermuda Islands, on the contrary, are little more than a cluster of rocks, in the middle of the ocean, of extremely dangerous access, covered only in detached spots with a scanty soil; and where, besides the frequently unhealthy state of the climate, provisions, and almost every thing else, are only obtained at exorbitant prices.† Natural obstacles of great mag-

* A gentleman connected with the establishment politely showed me through all the extensive ranges of store-rooms connected with the dock-yard. Every article within them was arranged in the most orderly manner, in respective apartments; and the rooms were in the best possible condition for preserving all kinds of naval stores from decay. Some cordage, of a size that did not happen to suit, was pointed out to me as having been twenty-five years in the store, and still in the most perfect state of preservation and strength. The climate of Bermuda destroys, on the other hand, the fibrous strength of hemp, according to the information given me, in a very short time.

† Few places are more unfit for a naval hospital. Fresh meat can only be had with great difficulty, at any price. Fish is plen-

nitude must also be removed from the site of the dock-yard at Bermuda, before it can, in any respect, answer the intended purpose. The attendant expense will be enormous; four millions sterling will not be sufficient.

The Episcopal church (St. Paul's) is a large and handsome-looking edifice, with a tall spire. The interior has much the appearance of a large modern church in England. It has a good, but not very powerful organ. The rotunda-built church, at the north end of the town, called Dutch-town, has a dome, and an imposing appearance; but a stranger would more readily take it for a *circus*, or a building to exhibit a large panorama, than for a church.

The Scotch kirk, called St. Andrew's, is rather a plain building, with a neat spire. The new Catholic chapel is an immense stone building, erected close to the old chapel. Besides these places of worship, there are one Presbyterian meeting-house, two for Anabaptists, one Methodist, and one Sandemanian.

There is also a poor-house, and a work-house, or house of correction. In a large brick building, in which the Court of Common Pleas is held, there is an exchange room, where the merchants meet, and in which the principal English and American papers are taken. In the Freemasons' Hall there are assembly rooms; and at the south end of the town is the humble building at present used as a theatre.

tiful, it is true. I have frequently heard the *natives* — who, by the way, are an industrious, frugal people — say that a bit of Irish or American harp was a *dainty* only to be indulged in on rare and particular occasions.

The state of society in Halifax is highly respectable. The officers of the civil government, and of the army and navy, mix very generally with the merchants, and gentlemen of the learned professions; and most of the leading residents, whether engaged in commercial or other pursuits, are men of intelligence and genteel manners. These circumstances impart to the first class of society in Halifax more refinement, more elegance and fashion than is to be met with, probably, in any town in America.

The style of living, hours of entertainment, fashions, manners, are all English. Dress is fully as much attended to as in London; and many of the fashionable sprigs who exhibit themselves in the streets and lounging-places of Halifax, and indeed in lesser towns in British America, might be considered, even in Regent Street, to have attained the *ne plus ultra* of "dandyism."

The amusements of Halifax are principally such as are usual in the other North American provinces; in all of which, assemblies, pic-nic parties, and amateur theatricals, form leading sources of pleasure. Annual horse races, on a respectable scale, have for some time been established; and it is remarkable, that all over America there is a general passion for this animated diversion. Regattas, for which Halifax harbour is one of the finest in the world, have been conducted with great spirit and splendour, annually, for a few years past.* Riding, fishing, and shooting

* The officers of the army and navy engage in the regattas with great earnestness, and prepare themselves for the contests with fully as much eagerness as the civilians do, although the latter were victorious in the principal rowing match last year.

in summer, skating, and driving about cabriolets or sledges in winter, are other pleasures which are delighted in ; and when the streets are covered with ice, there is not a small share of exulting pride enjoyed by him who can drive with the greatest impetuosity round a corner.

The troops generally once a-year afford the inhabitants the imposing spectacle of a sham battle.*

Excursions are also frequently made during summer, by those who can afford the time and expense, to different parts of the country.

The balls, *soirées*, and dinners at Government House, and the assemblies, are conducted in the same manner and style as English etiquette and fashion have established. Those who are admitted to these, (for, although private feeling may sometimes be unavoidably and unintentionally lacerated, it is necessary to mark a line of demarcation somewhere,) are the officers of the civil government, those of three regiments, artillery and staff, and gentlemen of respectability and education from among the merchants and resident inhabitants. Fancy balls, but confined to the same circles, have also been introduced.

Those delightful sources of social pleasure—small evening parties at the houses of private families—which we enjoy in England with probably much

* A very interesting military spectacle—a sham fight—took place at Halifax last August (1830). The 24th regiment of foot, commanded by Colonel Fox, with the volunteer militia companies, represented the enemy ; and the 8th, under Colonel Cathcart, and the 52d, under Colonel Fergusson, defended the peninsula of Halifax. After several counterfeit, but apparently real, desperate rencontres, the enemy of course was defeated, and compelled to retreat from the town and fortification.

greater satisfaction and happiness than any of our various public amusements, are frequent in this town. I believe there are few, who, having visited Halifax, and who have been at these small parties, but will say that they have insensibly forgot that they were not in England,—the language, the manners of the ladies and gentlemen, the style of dress, the dancing, the *entregent* or small talk, the apartments, the furniture, the refreshments, are all so truly alike, so much akin to England.

It would be ungallant to take leave of Halifax without mentioning what none but those whose hearts are indeed cold, if they have visited the place, can forget—I mean the ladies. Along with my own admiration of their beauty, accomplishments, amiability, and excellence of character, I must add, that several English gentlemen, who were at Halifax while I was there, have frequently remarked to me their admiration of the beauty, genteel manners, and intelligence of the ladies. These gentlemen, I may also observe, were men of liberal education, well acquainted with the world, and in the habit of mixing with fashionable society in Europe. It may appear presumptuous to add farther, that in the small but neat theatre at Halifax more genteel and beautiful ladies may be seen, than among the same number in the boxes of any of the London or provincial theatres. We may account for it from there being in reality a greater number of respectable inhabitants in Halifax, according to its population, than in the towns of this country. In Halifax there are few labourers or manufacturers, and even the labouring people, by having greater means, are always better dressed than in England. In regard to the gentlemen of Halifax,

and particularly those who have been born and educated in the province, I only record the opinion of other travellers, as well as my own, when I state, that, at the bar and in the pulpit, as merchants and as private gentlemen, we discover the natives of Nova Scotia, with few exceptions, to be men of superior attainments; nor must we forget to ascribe this principally to the careful provision that has been long made for the education of youth. Many circumstances also cherish and maintain among them endearments and associations connected with the mother country.

The anniversaries of the titular saints of each of the three kingdoms are celebrated at Halifax, with much spirit and cordiality; and, let indifferent spirits or cold hearts say what they may, there are but few indeed of those born in the British Isles, or of their offspring, who, when abroad, forget the associations and warm feelings of the heart, which filial regard and a lingering fondness for the United Kingdom, in spite of circumstances, inevitably nourish and preserve.*

* On my dining as a guest with the North British Society, on St. Andrew's day (1828), I was particularly pleased with the animated but orderly enthusiasm which prevailed. An old Scotchman in humble life, who had been for thirty years messenger to the Society at Halifax, and who resigned, in consequence of his age, that evening, to a more able-bodied man, interested me exceedingly. When he drank to those around the board on the occasion of taking his departure, and on his own health being drunk as a faithful messenger, the old man's face seemed re-animated by the return of youthful vigour, while he walked round the room behind our chairs. On the same occasion, several songs were sung, which were written by the natives of the colony, sons of Scotchmen, and educated in the province. Some of these I

The officers of his Majesty's civil list, and those of the army and navy, prefer Halifax, I believe, to any other town in America. They soon find themselves at home among the kind and hospitable inhabitants of the place; and I have never met an officer elsewhere, who was at Halifax for any time, who did not speak of it with enthusiasm. The excellent library established by the Earl of Dalhousie, affords also to the military a variety of standard and popular works, which at such distance from England, to gentlemen whose profession can barely allow them to carry along their necessary luggage when travelling, must be considered a great advantage.

There are six or seven weekly papers and a monthly magazine, and one or two circulating libraries; and also one or two booksellers, the principal one of whom imports from England and the United States the most approved new publications. There is also a livery-stable or two, the best of which is kept by a negro.

It is in the streets of Halifax that we most forcibly feel that we are not in Europe. In place of the huge horses and carts and frocked carters of England, we observe a thing, convenient enough in its way, called a truck, which forms a kind of inclined plane to roll puncheons of rum and molasses on it, with a half-starved horse, and generally a negro driver. We see few four-wheeled carriages—no hackney coaches; but many drive their own gigs in summer, and almost every one has a horse and sledge, or cabriolet, for

have copies of; and to me they appear to possess great merit, particularly two or three written by a young gentleman, a member of the court in one of the counties.



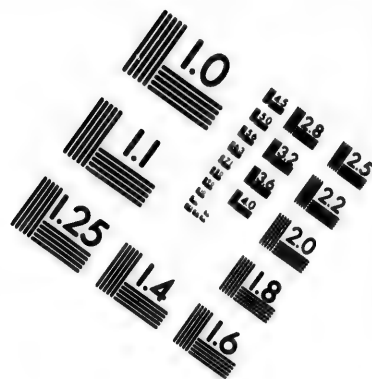
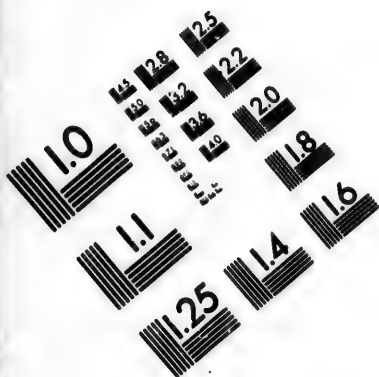
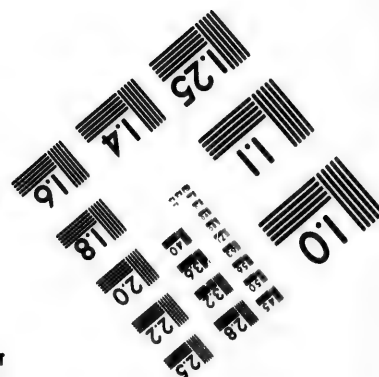
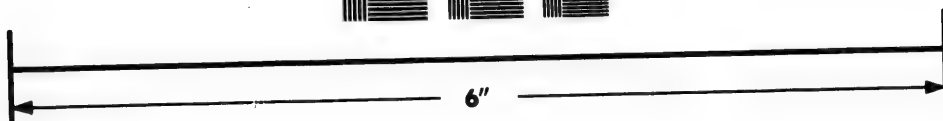
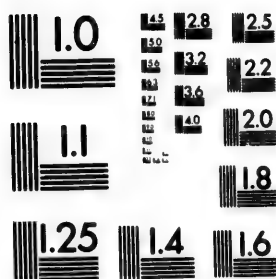


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winter amusement; waggons coming in with hay from the country, driven by the tall lank sons of the farmers, clad in short light-blue jackets, grey or blue trowsers, and straw hats; a parcel of lazy, miserable negroes, with some wild fruits or brooms to sell, from Hammond's plains; the proud strut of the well-fed and well-dressed black servant; a group of Micmac Indians, probably drunk, with their squaws and children; here and there an Acadian Frenchman and his wife, decently and simply dressed, the latter much in the same fashion as that of her ancestors a century and a half past; — all these, in contrast with brilliantly dressed military officers, on horseback or on foot, the golden epaulets, cocked hats, and blue uniform of the navy, and fashionably dressed resident gentlemen and strangers, the exquisite dandy, groups of soldiers, and sailors belonging to the men-of-war, or to the merchant ships, may give some idea of the population that animates the streets of Halifax.

The intercourse between Halifax and Europe is either by the government packets to Falmouth, which now proceed once a month from Halifax direct, or by the Halifax Packet Company's ships to Liverpool.

The latter is by far the most preferable conveyance, the ships being large, substantial, well equipped, and commanded by experienced officers; and considering the comfortable accommodations, and the sumptuous living, the fare (25*l.*) is cheap.*

* I returned in one of the Halifax Company's ships to England. We made our voyage in eighteen days. The rapidity of the passage, and the comfortable arrangements of the ship, made the voyage appear little more than a pleasure excursion on the water. The living was sumptuous: *déjeuner à la fourchette*, the

There are sailing packets regularly established between Halifax and Boston; and vessels sail every week to New York and the West Indies. The government packets go to and return from Bermuda; and during summer, vessels sail regularly to Cape Breton, Prince Edward Island, Pictou, Miramichi, Bay de Chaleur, and Quebec, and nearly all the year round to Newfoundland and New Brunswick. There are steam-packets about to be established between Halifax and Quebec, which will be attended with very great advantage and convenience.

Although resident housekeepers live in the most comfortable manner at Halifax, the notorious badness of the inns or boarding-houses does not afford the same comfort to transient residents. The attendance is bad in the extreme, the beds far from being good; and, although the tables are plentifully loaded with good things, yet altogether, both the inns and boarding-houses, or when you dine at a *table d'hôte*, although equally expensive, are beyond description inferior to those of Quebec or Montreal. A man who understood the business, and who would esta-

prominent materials of which, with coffee, tea, bread, butter, and eggs, were cold fowls, ham, tongue, cold beef, hot beef-steaks, and fish. Luncheon at twelve; dinner at three, in which the courses were chosen from the well-supplied stores of fresh beef, mutton, turkeys, geese, fowls, hams, tongue, and fish, with abundance of puddings, cheese, fruits, spirits, wines, and malt liquors.

Tea and supper afterwards followed in due time for those who chose to partake of them. So that with feasting, walking on deck for exercise, conversation, books, cards, and sleep, the time passed by most rapidly; and it was somewhat difficult to think, on entering the river Mersey, that Halifax was two thousand five hundred miles distant.

blish an hotel in the English style, with proper attentive waiters, might, with good management, make a fortune at Halifax.

The climate of Halifax is perhaps more foggy, but not so rainy, as that of England, and much hotter in summer and colder in winter. The fogs, which are disagreeable, but not unwholesome, are occasioned by its proximity to the Atlantic Ocean, and only occur when the winds blow from the sea.

Halifax has, since its first settlement in 1749, continued to be a place of considerable importance, not only as a rendezvous for his Majesty's ships, and as the head-quarters of the troops on the establishment of the lower American provinces, but also as the centre of a profitable fishery and trade.

There are certain points on the face of the globe, which, by their position, seem intended by nature for the site of great storehouses, or places wherein to deposit the productions of one country for the purpose of distributing them again to others. In respect to British America, Halifax must doubtless be considered the great and most fit depot for all general purposes, especially during the winter months.

During the last war, the vessels and property captured from the enemy on the coast of North America were chiefly sent into Halifax for condemnation. At that time, money was exceedingly abundant; all who possessed even common sagacity accumulated considerable sums, and Halifax became the theatre of incessantly active enterprise and commercial speculations. But the merchants and traders generally, as well as others, became at the same time so far intoxicated with, or lured by, the gains of the moment, that they apparently forgot, or at least did not stop

to consider, that, according to the common order of things, a change must inevitably take place, that would speedily destroy the then sources of wealth. They accordingly entered into many imprudent speculations, and launched into a most splendid style of living. The peace crushed both, and opened the eyes of all. Since that period, trade has been established on a more solid foundation, and conducted on a more prudent system. The commerce of Halifax is, therefore, at the present time, in as prosperous a condition as that of any town in America; and it deserves to be noticed, that only one house of consequence has failed for the last fourteen years.

By an order in council, it was, in 1817, declared, to a certain extent, a free port; and since then the privilege of being a free warehousing port has been extended to it. There is great activity observed, particularly about the wharfs, among all classes connected with, or employed in trade. The principal commerce of Halifax is with the West Indies. Next to this trade is that with Great Britain, which, in respect to the importations of British manufactures, has increased, and will still increase, prodigiously. Its commerce extends also to the continent of Europe.

The merchants some time ago joined their interests for the purpose of opening a trade with the East Indies: one experimental voyage has been accomplished, but scarcely with sufficient success to warrant the prosecution of the trade. The East India Company now send a ship with teas annually to Halifax, consigned to the respectable house of S. Cunard and Company. Halifax enjoys also an important inter-colonial trade, as well as its

trade with all the outports of the province. The latter receive a great part of their West India produce, and most of their British manufactures, from Halifax, which are paid for in money, fish, agricultural produce, furs, and lumber. Several vessels are also fitted out for the fisheries.

The exports from Halifax consist chiefly of dried codfish, pickled herrings, mackerel, and salmon; red herrings, coal, lumber, staves, cattle, butter, cheese, flour, oats, potatoes, &c., to the West Indies and the southern parts of America; and of timber, staves, deals, fish, oils, furs, &c., to Great Britain. The imports from the West Indies, &c., are rum, sugar, molasses, tobacco, &c., and all sorts of manufactured goods.

Some years ago, when the business was not so well understood in Halifax, the enterprising house of Messrs. Cunard made several spirited trials in the whale-fishery, which, however, did not succeed so well as might have been expected, or as their attempts deserved. But neither they themselves nor others were to be discouraged by failures, caused more probably by accidental circumstances, than by more substantial causes, while the Americans were pursuing the whale-fishery with success and profit. A remarkably fine ship, named the *Pacific*, was therefore built (in 1828) for the South Sea whale-fishery, and fitted for sea at an expense of 11,000*l*. This vessel was equipped with stores for three years, and, manned by spirited young men belonging to the province, proceeded to the Pacific Ocean.

Another large ship was chartered by the same company in 1828, and equipped and fitted out for the Brasil bank; and Messrs. Cunard have lately

purchased a condemned sloop of war, which they have repaired, equipped, and despatched for the South Sea whale-fishery. One of the ships lately sailed on her fourth voyage.

The ships owned by the inhabitants of Halifax are about one hundred large, square-rigged vessels, and about the same number of large schooners, with several smaller craft. The wharfs are also generally lined with coasting vessels and English and foreign ships, as well as those belonging to the port.

The articles manufactured at Halifax are as yet but few in number, and none to any great extent. Among these, two or three porter and ale breweries are the most important; and the ale, which is much like that brewed in Leith, is certainly of excellent quality. There is also a sugar refinery, on rather an extensive scale; rum, gin, and whisky distilleries; soap and candle manufactories; tanneries; a paper mill, and several tobacco manufactories. An iron foundry has lately been established opposite the town, at Dartmouth.

Several attempts were made to establish a public bank at Halifax, under a legislative charter, but the different bills brought under the consideration of the House of Assembly were so thoroughly tortured during their progress, that their vital principles were completely destroyed, while an overwhelming load of restrictions rendered them impracticable. The consequence was, that the merchants themselves have established, independently, a private bank, which is considered perfectly safe, and which affords facilities, some think too freely, others not sufficiently so, to the commercial interests of the province. Another bank has lately been incorporated by a pro-

vincial act, under the style of "The Bank of Nova Scotia."

The merchants of Halifax, generally speaking, connect prudence and perseverance with enterprise. They are by no means backward in undertaking whatever affords a fair prospect of gain. Some of the old moneyed men are, it is true, certainly accused, and, it must be admitted, with some justice, of declining to co-operate in any measure in which there is the barest possibility of risk.

The line of Liverpool packets, the whale-ships, the bank, and that great undertaking, the Shubenacadry Canal, have all been projected, and are all conducted and supported by the energies of associations, formed in the province.

In 1826, a company was formed to open a canal navigation from Halifax harbour to the Basin of Minas, along the line of the Shubenacadry Lake and rivers, a distance of about fifty-four miles; and the legislature voted 15,000*l.* in aid of this spirited undertaking. This canal is not yet completed. It will not surely be abandoned, when a few thousand pounds will accomplish the work. It will convey the agricultural productions of the fertile districts of the Basin of Minas, as well as various kinds of lumber, coal, and other minerals, which abound along its banks; and carry back West India produce, British manufactures, and other supplies for the interior. It is sixty feet broad at top, thirty-six at the bottom, and will float vessels drawing eight feet.*

The Chamber of Commerce of Halifax, consisting

* See the map at the beginning of this chapter.

of fifteen members, elected by ballot from the general subscribers of the Commercial Society, has imparted a spirit of energy to the trade of the province unknown before its establishment.

The Commercial Society was formed in March, 1822, by agreement, signed by the members, who are the principal merchants; and the Chamber of Commerce may be considered as a committee acting for the Commercial Society. Their business consists of taking into consideration every subject connected with the trade of the province; corresponding with the Chambers of Commerce of other colonies on all commercial matters; managing the funds of the society; presenting petitions to the House of Assembly; making necessary by-laws, and collecting all the information respecting the colonial trade. They certainly do not neglect the duty confided to them; and to this circumstance we may, in a great measure, attribute the superior intelligence of the merchants of Halifax, in respect to all commercial matters.

Opposite to Halifax stands the pretty little town of Dartmouth. This place was first laid out and settled the year after Lord Cornwallis founded Halifax; but in 1756 it was destroyed, and most of the inhabitants massacred by the Indians. Twenty-eight years after, a colony of loyalists from Nantucket, who were brought up principally to the South Sea whale-fishery, were induced to settle here by government, and 1500*l.* given to establish them. These people followed the whale-fishery for eight years with great success; but the failure of an extensive and speculative mercantile house at Halifax arrested their enterprise, and reduced them to poverty. Liberal offers were then made them, through an agent, by the

merchants of Milford in Wales, which induced them to leave the province; and Halifax, consequently, lost the benefit that would have been derived from a probably very extensive and profitable whale-fishing.

Dartmouth has since that time, however, increased, slowly indeed, in population and in buildings. It has at present a neat church and school; and at a pretty cove close to it, the packet-ships that are established between Liverpool and Halifax, and the whale-ships, were built. A fine new steam-boat and several ferry-boats ply between Halifax and Dartmouth, where the distance across is less than a mile, and the Shubenacadie Canal is to join the harbour near this place. There is also a pretty good road from Dartmouth, leading to the great western road. Two or three spots near this place are admirably adapted for patent slips or marine railways, which, from the rise and fall of tide in the harbour of Halifax being only six or seven feet, would be found of eminent convenience in graving or repairing ships.

The lands on the Dartmouth side of the harbour are much less stubborn, and more of a sandy loam character than those on the opposite side; and the industrious Germans, who are settled along the eastern passage, have long subjected them to fair and profitable cultivation.

CHAP. X.

DESCRIPTIVE SKETCHES OF THE PRINCIPAL SETTLEMENTS.

THE sea-board of the province, from Halifax to Yarmouth, like the whole of the Atlantic coast of Nova Scotia, presents a succession of innumerable headlands, small islands, bays, and harbours. It may be observed that nearly all the small harbours have a few inhabitants, deriving a tolerably comfortable living from the means of fishing and a little agriculture. The general character of this part of the country is rocky, often naked, and difficult of culture. But many spots of good land occur at the heads of the bays and up the rivers.

The first harbour east from Halifax is Sambro. It lies within the lighthouse, and affords good anchorage and shelter for vessels that are wind-bound after leaving Halifax. Its population are fishermen.

St. Margaret's Bay lies twenty miles to the westward of Sambro. It is less than two miles at the entrance, six wide inside, and fourteen long. Its shores are indented with several fine harbours.

The soil is rocky but fertile, and many parts are subjected to profitable cultivation by the industry of the settlers (about nine hundred), who are the descendants of Germans and of some French Huguenots. The country surrounding this magnificent bay, as the uncultivated parts are in most places covered with

woods, is picturesque and beautiful. Its numerous streams abound with salmon, trout, gaspereau, &c.

Mahon Bay is separated from that of St. Margaret by the lofty peninsula of Aspotogan. This bay, the scenery of which, for picturesque grandeur, is not surpassed by any landscape in America, is about ten miles broad and twelve deep. It contains a multitude of beautiful wooded islands, which were probably never counted, but said to exceed two hundred. Many of these are appropriated to pasturage, and admirably adapted for raising sheep. One of the largest, Tancook, has a population of about 240 inhabitants, subsisting principally by agriculture. There are many excellent harbours within this bay, and three or four rivers, on which there are several saw-mills, and two or three grist-mills.

The harbour and village of Chester is the most considerable place in Mahon Bay. It was first settled by people from New England, who afterwards abandoned the place. The Germans, who succeeded them, were industrious, and secured independence to themselves, and the prosperity of the settlement. The population of the bay amounts to about two thousand, who are chiefly employed in agriculture, and preparing lumber at the saw-mills for exportation. They own several schooners and sloops, in which they export the produce of their industry.

Near the entrance of Mahon Bay, on the western side, lies the harbour of Lunenburg; it was formerly called Malagash or Merliguesh. After the settlement of Halifax, government held out, by proclamation, inducements to German Protestants to remove to Nova Scotia; in consequence of which, one thousand seven hundred and forty-five German and Swiss

emigrants arrived at Halifax in the course of three years. Malagash was fixed upon as the most judicious place to locate them, and its name changed to Lunenburg. They were accordingly removed from Halifax to this place, and immediately commenced clearing the trees from the ground, erecting habitations, and building block-houses to defend them against the savages.

Although government supplied these people with provisions for three years, and with about seventy head of horned cattle, one thousand sheep, and one hundred pigs, and upwards of one hundred and fifty goats, yet the misery they suffered, arising from the hostility of the Indians, prevented their prosperity until 1760. They could not venture singly the least distance into the woods without being murdered; and several of them were scalped or carried off by the savages.

From the time of the peace, which secured them against the Indians, the inhabitants of Lunenburg advanced industriously in agriculture, and such other pursuits as necessity or their means directed. They extended their improvements, erected saw and grist mills; and all their necessary wants and comforts were considered secure, when they were once more reduced nearly to ruin in 1782, by the depredations of six American privateers, which entered the harbour, and plundered all the property they could lay hold of, and also compelled the inhabitants to sign a bond for the payment of a thousand pounds, to prevent the burning of the town. The peace of next year relieved them from further apprehensions, and left them to their industrious occupations.

Lunenburg at present contains about one hundred and sixty dwelling-houses, besides stores, and about

twelve hundred and fifty inhabitants. It is built on a most commanding situation; its harbour is about a mile in length, and has sufficient water for large vessels; its trade is not carried on with great spirit, but it is conducted with steady perseverance and economy. The smaller vessels are employed in the fisheries, the larger ones in carrying fish and lumber to the West Indies, and one or two in carrying timber to Liverpool, and bringing back salt and fishing-tackle. There are sixteen or seventeen square-rigged vessels, and several schooners and shallops, belonging to this place. The aspect of the town of Lunenburg is unlike that of the other towns in the province: the style of the houses is truly Dutch, but the outsides are generally painted either red, white, orange, or green. The arrangements of the interior, with every regard, however, to substantial comfort, are also peculiar,—strong clumsy furniture, old Dutch clocks, looking-glasses, chimney-ornaments, and old pictures, which seem intended to outrage the rules of perspective, hold their position among modern English carpets and curtains. The close German stove, and the custom of sleeping between two feather beds, are also preserved as necessary in-door comforts; and the inhabitants are still much the same honest, industrious, and unceremonious people, that their ancestors were. They talk German, and so do all the children; but while we cannot but regard the feeling that cherishes an affection for a language in which all their early ideas and associations have been conceived, yet, isolated as they are from the country in which it is the language of literature and science, a tenacious adherence to it will prevent their attaining the same knowledge as the other inhabitants of the

province. They must, however, be considered as forming a most useful and decent population, with sufficient and ample means to render their condition comfortable and happy.

La Have, a few miles to the westward, is one of the largest rivers in Nova Scotia, and is settled principally by Germans or their descendants. There are from sixteen to eighteen saw-mills, and some grist-mills on this fine river: the lands are generally good; and its harbour is the principal timber port on the coast. Several islands lie at the entrance.

Port Medway, lying some miles to the westward, is also a place where timber is shipped, and on its rivers there are several saw-mills.

Liverpool is the second town in the province, and is situated on a harbour of the same name, distant eighty miles west from Halifax. It was formerly called Port Rossignol after a Frenchman of that name, already mentioned, who was established in this place, and driven from it by De Monts. On an island at the entrance there is an excellent lighthouse; but the harbour, which never freezes over, and which in other respects is convenient and safe, has a bar across the entrance, covered only with nine feet water at ebb, and fifteen feet at full tide; there is safe anchorage, however, three miles below, at Herring Cove. Those who first settled in this place came from New England: like others at that period, their miseries were for some years severe; persevering intrepidity, however, overcame great difficulties, and secured their independence. It is at present the most imposing country town in the province. The houses are not only large and handsome, but the interior arrangements are comfortable and respectable. It has

a court-house, gaol, fort, an English church, one Methodist, and one Baptist meeting-house, a respectable grammar school, about two hundred private buildings, and a great number of wharfs. The inhabitants have from fifty to sixty vessels, principally ships, brigs, and large schooners, besides shallops and small craft. They trade with England and the West Indies, and several schooners go to the fisheries at Labrador. There is a cove and fine beach at Coffin's Island, where most of their fish is dried.

During the last war, this place fitted out more privateers than all the other ports of the province. They were very successful in making captures, which produced a temporary source of wealth, that probably did no real good to the inhabitants: certainly none, when we are made acquainted with the number of widows, and of fatherless children, that became such in consequence.

The lands adjoining the town, and for a long way back, are remarkably stubborn and rocky; but the industry of the inhabitants has subjected many spots to cultivation. The salmon-fishery, though much decreased; the convenience of the harbour for the cod, herring, and mackerel fisheries; the lumber for export, either in square logs, or in deal boards or scantling, which is flooded down from the interior country by the river Mersey and its lakes, — are means abundantly sufficient to secure the prosperity of this place. It is now a warehousing port. There is a communication by water, with little interruption, for canoes, from Liverpool to Annapolis, by the river Mersey and a chain of lakes. The Indians frequently cross the country by this route. Above the town there is a bridge over the river, built on piles, and

nearly four hundred yards long: it is the only toll in the province. There is another bridge of one hundred yards, over the river at the cataract, a few miles farther up.

Shelburne Harbour, perhaps the finest in America, lies about forty miles west of Liverpool: there are several small settlements in this distance; and on Roseway, or M'Nutt's Island, at the entrance of Shelburne, there is a good lighthouse. The settlement of this place was attempted by several persons connected with one Alexander M'Nutt, who planted themselves on the western shore, and gave it the name of New Jerusalem. They wholly failed in the terms of settlement, and the lands reverted to the crown.

The lands surrounding Shelburne are rocky, and difficult to cultivate. The river Roseway, which falls into it, issues from a chain of lakes in the interior; and although it is often broken in its course, oak and juniper, of durable quality for ship-building, are floated down its stream. Various kinds of fish frequent this harbour; and near its entrance an extensive fishery might be established.

The celebrity of Shelburne, however, rests not on its present, but its past condition. In 1783, twelve thousand loyalists arrived from the United States, and injudiciously fixed on a spot near the head of Port Roseway for a town, which Governor Parr named Shelburne. Its situation is certainly pleasant and well sheltered, and the water deep. But being ten miles from the entrance, it was too far from the fisheries: wanting roads and navigable rivers, it had no communication with the interior; and the adjoining country being uncultivated and without inhabitants, it could only be supplied with grain, meat, and vegetables,

from a great distance. The harbour also freezes over during winter.

A spacious town was, however, immediately laid out, the streets opened, and magnificent houses, capable of lodging all the civilians; and barracks for several regiments of soldiers, were erected. In short, a splendid town rose instantaneously, as if reared by the wand of a magician, rather than by the labour of masons and carpenters. Wanting, however, those advantages without which no town can thrive, Shelburne, as might reasonably be expected, declined rapidly.

These men were infatuated with the beauty of the harbour alone; they overlooked the inconvenience of its being remote from all the other settlements; their previous pursuits unfitted them for the incessant labours of fishing or farming; their wealth was acquired either by commerce, or it descended to them by easier channels; neither their constitutions nor their ideas were calculated to surmount the difficulties which were inevitably connected with their situation; yet they vainly imagined that splendid buildings and elegant society would attract the intrepid and the industrious to their town from all parts of the province; that it would become the metropolis of Nova Scotia, sink Halifax into obscurity, and command a great trade. Not one of these brilliant expectations was realised. These respectable but ill-fated men dissipated property and money, amounting in value to half a million, in two years. Most of them returned afterwards to the United States; the remainder transplanted themselves to other parts of the province.

The present population of Shelburne, and its environs, is not considered more than five hundred.

The ruined state of the place—streets over-run with grass, long weeds, and shrubs; tall houses, with broken windows, the floors fallen in, doors ajar, or broken off their hinges, ceiling broken, and walls moulding or covered with green moss; a churchyard, now seldom disturbed by the grave-digger, and a *tout ensemble* picture of desolation, present characteristics which would seem to mark a city depopulated by plague or famine, rather than the abandoned abode of once wealthy and genteel families. The interior country is said to be fertile in many places, and watered with many fine streams. There are also several small lakes lying between it and St. Mary's Bay.

A few miles west of Shelburne Harbour is Cape Negro Harbour, sheltered by a high island of the same name. It forms the *embouchure* of Clyde river, which, next to Annapolis river, is considered the most beautiful in the province, and winds forty miles through the country. It is finely wooded, and has a Welsh agricultural settlement on its banks, but many of the inhabitants follow fishing as well as farming.*

Barrington Harbour lies within Cape Sable Island. It was first settled by the French; afterwards by whale fishers from Nantucket, who again left it; and then by fishermen from Cape Cod, who remained. Cod-fishing has from that period been their chief

* The rivers which flow through the southern part of Nova Scotia rise principally at the foot of a range of hills situated in the interior, between Argyle Bay and Annapolis Basin, and called the Blue Mountains. The Indians are said to have formerly resorted periodically to groves among those wilds, which they considered as consecrated places, in order to offer sacrifices to their gods.

pursuit. There are about seventy vessels owned at the village or township of Barrington.

The soil is barren, but several rivers, issuing from lakes, run into the harbour, by which timber for ship-building is conducted from the interior. The inhabitants attend partially to grazing and agriculture.

Pubnico, which is an excellent safe harbour, lies some miles to the north, after passing several rugged islands, towards the Bay of Fundy. Its inhabitants, as well as those of the neighbouring village at Eel Brook, are principally industrious well-behaved Acadians. The right to the eel-fishery was long a matter of great dispute between them and the Indians.

At the east side of Townshend, or Argyle Bay, lies Argyle, within the Tusket Isles, probably three hundred in number, which form innumerable harbours. Tusket River spreads into different branches, passes through lakes, and affords excellent situations for farms and improvements. This is a very valuable and beautiful part of the province, and a fine agricultural district commences here, which extends to the Basin of Minas.

The first settlers, after the banishment of the Acadians from Tusket, were loyalists and disbanded soldiers, who suffered the evils of poverty for many years; but they, or their descendants, have now good farms, well stocked with cattle. The Acadian settlers at Tusket, about two hundred families, are an orderly people, in tolerably good circumstances. They have a neat chapel, amidst a beautiful grove of oak-trees, in which the Abbé Segoigne officiates occasionally.

At the harbour of Jebogue there is a populous settlement; the inhabitants are the descendants of people from New England, who removed there on

account of its immense marsh, and its convenience for the fisheries. It was previously settled by Acadians.

Yarmouth, or Cape Fourchê Harbour, is the principal and most thriving place in this part of the province. Its harbour is safe, and the channel deep, up to the town or village of Yarmouth; but when it ebbs, there remain extensive mud flats between the channel and the shore, which render it disagreeable, and even difficult, to land until the tide covers them. This is indeed common to some of the finest harbours in other respects, in America. Some miles up the river, near the falls or rapids, is a very pretty village called Milburn. The interruption of the navigation in the river occasioned by this fall, was tried to be obviated by means of a lock, but this has been abandoned. Yarmouth and its neighbourhood contain an industrious population of about four thousand five hundred inhabitants, who possess about seventy vessels, and large stocks of cattle. This part of the country is remarkably beautiful; and the scenery, marked with hills, woods, rivers, and a vast number of lakes, is exceedingly picturesque. The climate is also more temperate than in the other parts of the province.

St. Mary's bay is a spacious inlet, about thirty-five miles deep, and from four to ten miles broad. Cape St. Mary's, on the south, and Brier Island, on the north, are the points that form its entrance. Brier Island, on which there is a miserable light-house, Long Island, in the same range, and a peninsula called Digby Neck, separate it from the Bay of Fundy. These places are all rocky, and their soil appears forbidding; but they were settled many years ago by industrious loyalists, who follow fishing and farming.

There is a safe channel between Brier Island and Long Island, and another between the latter and the land. These islands lie in a range with the peninsula; and the channels, or guts, passing obliquely between them, occasion the whole to appear, when sailing up the Bay of Fundy, as a connected country from Annapolis Gut, or rather Patrick's Hole near it, to Brier Island. The lands of the peninsula, on being subjected to cultivation, are much more fertile than they appear to be.

At the head of the bay there is a very large marsh; and the shores, to the pretty village of Weymouth, twelve miles below at Sissiboo river, are settled by farmers: opposite to this settlement a town was laid out, and named New Edinburgh, by Governor Parr, which, like many others similarly planned, has never been built.

The Sissiboo is a beautiful rapid river, which receives the waters of several lakes and smaller streams; but it is only navigable for four or five miles from the sea.

Along the south side of St. Mary's Bay, extending nearly thirty miles towards Yarmouth, lies Clare, which contains a population of about four thousand four hundred Acadians, the descendants of those neutrals who were formerly banished from the province, but, when allowed, returned to the country dear to their hearts from early affection. While in exile, they often visited Nova Scotia in small shallops, which they built at Massachusetts; and on being permitted, after repeated applications for leave, to return, they immediately removed to this part of the country, where they have settled and prospered. They certainly occupy a fine portion of the province, the

lands of which are fertile, and on the shores of which the sea throws up abundant manures to enrich it when necessary. Fish also swarm round the shores; and although the Acadians principally depend upon agriculture, they are also fishermen occasionally, and carry the overplus produce of the soil and fishing across the Bay of Fundy to sell at St. John's. All their wants are easily supplied; and, happy, contented, unambitious, retaining the habits and customs, language and religion, of their fathers, they seem to have nothing to wish for, and probably enjoy as much happiness as human nature admits.

The main post road leading from Annapolis to Yarmouth passes through Clare. There are two chapels, one not far from each extremity of this long settlement. The easternmost, which is the largest, will contain about two thousand five hundred persons: its altar is a very splendid one. Here lives, and here has resided for about thirty years, a man whom the demon of revolution drove from France. In that country he was born, and there did he receive that education, and acquire those manners, which, by being superinduced on a pure heart and sound head, constitute the worth of the amiable and venerable Abbé Segoigne. This excellent curé is the priest, the comforter, the lawyer, and judge of all the Acadians of Clare and Tusket. As their lawyer, or rather notary, he keeps their records, writes their deeds, notes, and contracts; while his opinion as their judge, and his advice as their priest and father, convince his flock of the evils of litigation, from which they are taught to fly as from pestilence. Woe be to the lawyers of Nova Scotia, if each settlement in the

province had an Abbé Segoigne for its pastor, and inhabitants that respected his advice.

Since M. Segoigne retired to this peaceable and secluded settlement, he has only been once at Halifax, and only two or three times at the adjoining town of Digby. The urbanity of manner, and the polish which distinguished the gentleman of the old French school, are truly those of the Abbé; yet for him the world has no allurements to fascinate his thoughts from the calm, pious, cheerful, and useful life, which has diffused so much happiness among the Acadians.*

All the changes, politics, and vexations of the world, are unknown to him; and he has probably no further connection out of Clare and Tusket with his own church, than an occasional letter from the Catholic bishop of Quebec or Halifax. He speaks the Indian language fluently; and the Micmacs regard him with the utmost veneration. The greater part of his flock have been born, or have grown up, under him, while he has been among them; and a few are accompanying him in the decline of his well-spent life. To him, with reverence and love, all look up for comfort in their afflictions, for advice in their mutual difficulties, and for the settlement of their little disputes.

One of those tremendous fires which make such fearful ravages in America, nearly destroyed the district of Clare in 1823. The chapel, and most of the houses and corn-fields, were consumed; and M. Segoigne had one of his hands severely burnt,

* I have just now (April, 1833,) heard that the venerable Abbé is still exercising his accustomed avocations.

while pushing through the fire to save the boxes which contained the land-titles, and other records of the inhabitants. This calamity was inevitably the cause of much distress and poverty, which the Acadians have since completely overcome.

Annapolis Basin is the next inlet after leaving St. Mary's Bay. Its communication with the Bay of Fundy is by a narrow gut or strait, which is formed by a precipitous chasm, the appearance of which impresses the idea of a tremendous explosion having blown away the rocks and other materials which previously occupied the space now open, and which formerly maintained an unbroken coast from St. Mary's Bay to the Basin of Minas. It lies nearly south from St. John River; and on entering through this strait from the Bay of Fundy, one of the most beautiful havens in America opens to view. Besides the waters of several small rivers, it receives also those of the largest in Nova Scotia, and of one of the most beautiful rivers in America, which flows and fertilises the country for about sixty miles, in a direction nearly parallel to the Bay of Fundy.

Three miles above the lighthouse, at the entrance of the strait, on the west side, and in a most charming situation on the declivity of a hill, stands the town of Digby. It contains a court-house, church, Methodist chapel, and about a hundred private houses and shops. The inhabitants, who are industrious American loyalists, or their offspring, employ themselves in building vessels in the mackerel and herring fishery, and trading in the produce of the country and imported goods. The fame of the small fat smoked or red Digby herrings, or, as they are humorously called, "Digby Chickens," has spread over

the continent of America. The Indians also shoot vast numbers of porpoises about the gut.

Above Digby, a beautiful farming district named Clements, inhabited principally by loyalists and Germans, extends to Annapolis. On the opposite or north side of the basin lies the rich and well-cultivated township of Grenville.

The town of Annapolis, once the *Port Royal* and metropolis of the province, and the oldest European settlement in North America, is situated on a point formed by the Annapolis and the little river Le Quille.

De Monts, and his associates, delighted with its situation, chose it for a place of residence in 1604; and, unlike nearly all those of the other early settlements attempted in America by Europeans, its first inhabitants succeeded, at the same time, in establishing themselves, and in securing the regards of the Indians, who continued ever friendly to the French in Acadia.

The natural beauty of the situation of Port Royal, which exhibited the primeval wildness of America in all its silvan luxuriance and solitude, was fully equal to all the brilliant colouring of Lescarbot's description. Various circumstances, however, prevented its rising to the same importance as the other towns planted by France. Its vicinity to the English settlements at New York, the cupidity of the French commandants, whose object was to accumulate fortunes by the fur trade, and its changing masters so frequently, were the leading causes of it never containing more than one hundred houses, or more than one thousand two hundred inhabitants; nor is it ever likely to increase or flourish beyond the condition of a thriving

and beautiful village. Halifax is, and will ever continue to be, the metropolis of Nova Scotia. Digby, which has sprung up as a town within the last fifty years, is much larger; commands the advantage of being about ten miles nearer the sea, and more contiguous to the herring-fishery within the strait; while Bridgetown, another thriving village, lately built at the head of the navigation, receives the agricultural productions of the interior, and carries them off direct, past Annapolis, to a market. The multiplicity of small towns in this, as well as in all parts of America, will ever prevent any of them attaining great prosperity or magnitude, unless it be those, like Halifax, New York, Quebec, Montreal, and St. John's, which inherit from nature extraordinary and commanding advantages.

Annapolis was not only the metropolis of the province, while under the dominion of France, but continued so until the building of Halifax, in 1750. It was called Port Royal by France, and named Annapolis by England, in honour of Queen Anne; during whose reign, as has been already observed, it was finally ceded to England. The first governors and their officers resided here, as often as the country changed its masters; and many of the most interesting subjects relating to the history of the province are connected with Port Royal, or Annapolis.

At present it contains about fifty or sixty good dwelling-houses, shops, stores, and out-houses; and, *cæteris paribus*, a court-house, church, Episcopal and Methodist chapels. It has also a respectable seminary of education, supported partly by 200*l.* from the legislature. The government buildings and fortifications are rapidly decaying and mouldering away;

and, as far as common sense and utility are concerned, why should that process of nature which occasions their destruction be arrested? The Indians are no longer either powerful or ferocious; nor under the influence of men who possess the talents, or who make it a doctrine of their order, to uphold whatever they consider necessary to increase its interest or power. The Acadians are no longer the neutrals, who, with filial affection, clung, however wrongly, to the crown, which early impressions taught them to obey as a matter of duty, and as a point of faith.

The government grounds, which encompass the town, and which are not of the least utility to the crown, but which would be of great benefit to the inhabitants, if granted to farmers, or otherwise disposed of, the officers' residences, store, and barracks, might be either left as they are, or more usefully appropriated by selling them with the grounds they occupy, and the money applied to the use of the academy in the town.

There are two roads leading from Annapolis to Halifax. The mail road leads through some of the most flourishing settlements in the province. The other new road, opened principally with a view of settling the country, passes through the Dalhousie settlement of disbanded soldiers. The steam-packet for St. John's also starts from this place twice a-week, calling at Digby; and a mail coach, built in the American style, runs three times a-week between Annapolis and Halifax. Post roads lead also from it to all the western settlements; and by the way of Yarmouth to Shelburne.

Fishes of various kinds, such as shad, bass, salmon, and particularly herring, frequent Annapolis Basin in

vast shoals.' They arrive at different times of the season, are of different sizes, and are principally caught in weirs, on the shore of Clements. An account of this fishery will be found where the fisheries of the province are treated of under a general head.

About seven miles from Annapolis, on a stream called Moose River, an iron-foundry was established by a company under the protection of a legislative charter. The ore is excellent, and the company have been at great expense in erecting buildings, and building a very handsome stone bridge across the river. The price of labour, and perhaps more particularly the advantage of coal, which the mining establishment at Pictou possesses, will likely prevent, at least for some time, the success of this establishment.

The river Annapolis, up to its source, presents as beautiful a country as any part of America. The Acadians, attracted by its rich alluvial lands, had extensive farms on its banks. After their removal, these places, as well as all the best lands, were rapidly settled; and rich meadows, well-cultivated fields, orchards, substantial dwelling-houses, and large barns, grist and saw mills, are the leading characteristics with which industry has embellished this extensive district of Nova Scotia.

About fourteen miles above Annapolis, at a bridge which crosses the river, and marks the head of its tide navigation, a pretty thriving village has sprung suddenly up within the last few years, through which the agricultural produce of the interior must naturally pass. It has already its English church, a Baptist and a Methodist meeting-house, an academy, about

sixty dwelling-houses, stores, shops, mills, taverns, and smithies.

The lands lying between Annapolis River and the Bay of Fundy, form a high ridge from Digby Gut to Minas Basin. This tract is settled by industrious families, who have in general excellent farms under fair cultivation. This district of country, about 70 miles in extent, and occupying the fronts of the townships of Grenville, Wilmot, and Aylesford, and part of Cornwallis, has no harbour on the Bay of Fundy. A pier was built at Wilmot to remedy this inconvenience, which appears to answer the purpose. The River Annapolis has been cleared of such obstructions as impeded the rafting of timber down to Bridgetown.

The Basin of Minas is one of the two great branches of the Bay of Fundy. It is one of the most beautiful inlets at full tide, and one of the most remarkable at low water, in North America. Its entrance is through a strait about three miles wide, with bold, abrupt shores; within which it widens to from eight to sixteen miles, and, receiving the waters of upwards of twenty rivers and streams, extends about fifty miles to the head of Cobequid Bay.

The tides, at full and change, rise from fifty to sixty feet, and recede so far as to leave the beds of the rivers, with the exception of the channels that carry down the fresh water, and many miles of the shores of the basin, dry. The flood-tide rushes in with inconceivable celerity, particularly when under the influence of the winds. The phenomenon called the "Bore," is the attendant, or rather the precursor, of the flood-tide, which approaches in a line of foam, extending across the bay, about four or five feet high,

and rolling over the sands at the rate of four miles, or more, in an hour. These tides render the navigation dangerous to strangers, who often anchor in five or six fathoms water, sometimes on the steep bank of the channel, when in five or six hours they find their vessels lying dry, and in danger of rolling over if near the edge of the flats. Those, however, who are acquainted with the Bay of Fundy, and know where to anchor until the next flood, consider these rapid tides very convenient, particularly when the winds are not fair.

The fertility of the alluvial lands; the rich variety of landscapes, formed by luxuriant woods, lagoons, hills, dales, bays, rivers, and headlands, with several beautiful islands on the north side; and the extensive farms, and thriving villages of this part of the province, give it a just claim to be classed with the delightful valley of Annapolis, and to be designated together, the Garden of the Province.

The shores of the Basin of Minas are parcelled off by no less than ten of those imaginary divisions called townships; and which, in all other parts of North America, have some distinct meaning; but which, in Nova Scotia, seem laid down on the map to perplex descriptions, or at least to render delineations of the country tame, tedious, and utterly uninteresting. We should describe places as we travel through them, or sail along their shores; but these townships disregard all the natural features of the country, and being merely laid down on the maps which the surveyors have in their offices, their straight lines are made to cross rivers, valleys, mountains, lakes, forests, and often through settlements, without the least courtesy to the beautiful divisions or delineations of nature.

From the high abrupt headland of Cape Blomedon (or Blow-me-down) the shores bend south for twelve or fourteen miles to Cornwallis River. Three fine rivers intervene in this distance, the lands of which are inhabited, and the marshes diked. The River Cornwallis, or Horton River, as it is named, from winding between these settlements, meanders, it is said, about thirty miles through a fertile and picturesque country. It is fringed with intervale land and diked marshes, which yield heavy crops. The river Gaspereau follows next, and falls into the same pretty bay, about three miles broad, as the last river. It is a rapid stream, flowing through a hilly, rugged part of the province, turning numerous grist and saw mills, its banks well inhabited, and near its mouth skirted with valuable marshes. At the upper part there is a settlement called Canaan. Between it and the river Avon there is another stream, called Half-way River, but properly it should retain the French name of Grand Prairie. The banks of this river were first settled by the Acadian French. Their principal village was Minas, between Grand Pré, or Grand Prairie, and the river Gaspereau. They raised dikes, and formed abbateux, which shut out the high tides of the basin from the marshes; these went to ruin after the Acadians were removed from the province.

The present inhabitants are chiefly the descendants of emigrants who were attracted to these places from Massachusetts by their great natural advantages, but more especially by the great improvements made by the banished Acadians, as well as the encouragement in the way of provisions given them by government.

From various causes, which judicious management

might, it is said, have prevented, they suffered much distress for some years. No part of the province, however, appears to be in a more thriving condition at the present time; vast meadows, corn-fields, gardens and orchards of great extent on every farm, producing delicious apples; good houses, herds of cattle, flocks of sheep, pigs and poultry, forming the wealth of the inhabitants. There are altogether about seven thousand two hundred and fifty acres of diked land, besides intervalles and salt marshes. The Wellington Dike cost about £21,000, and Grand Prairie about 10,000/.

On these rivers there are also the thriving villages of Horton, Cornwallis, and Kentville, having one or two grammar schools, two English churches, two Presbyterian, three Methodist, one Independent, and five Baptist meeting-houses; twenty-three grist-mills, twenty saw-mills, and four or five other mills. The population of these settlements is in number about nine thousand. The rivers abound with salmon, trout, shad, gaspereau, and smelts.

The Avon is the largest river, unless it be the Shubenacadry, which falls into the Basin of Minas. It spreads into three principal branches, — the Windsor or Avon, the St. Croix, and the Kennetcoot, — besides numerous lesser streams.

The tides of the basin flow fifteen miles up, and cover at high water its sand and mud banks, to the height of from thirty to forty feet. On the west side of the Avon lies the thriving and beautiful settlement of Falmouth; on the east, those of Newport. The river Cock-my-Gun branches off for some miles to the east; and, three miles farther up, the Avon receives the Kennetcoot, another splendid river,

about thirty miles long. Four miles above, on the same side, the St. Croix joins the Avon, and receives the vassal waters of numerous lakes and streams. The lands between the St. Croix and Windsor River are remarkably beautiful, with luxuriant meadows and fertile uplands.

Windsor*, the shire town of the county of Hants, stands at the confluence of the Avon, Windsor, and St. Croix rivers; and, except at low ebb, when the muddy beds of the rivers are exposed, it is one of the prettiest situations in the province. The Ardoise, Horton, and other highlands, form an amphitheatre, which, with the luxuriant woods, shelter the beautiful, picturesque valley of Windsor; and the rich dike-lands that fringe the St. Croix and Avon rivers have long been considered the most fertile in Nova Scotia. Along these rivers the Acadians had extensive improvements, and previous to their banishment, they exported annually several cargoes of wheat to Boston. The settlement and improvement of these lands were afterwards retarded for a long time, by injudicious grants to a few individuals. These lands, however, have gradually passed into other hands, and they have since been subdivided and cultivated. There is no bridge across the Avon at Windsor, but it is forded at low-water. Indeed, were it not for the great rise of tide, it would only be a pretty large stream. Some years ago an attempt was made, and abandoned, to raise funds by lottery, to erect a bridge here, which will, however, be built ere long by other means.

Windsor is a neat and prettily built town, or rather village, with a church, Roman Catholic chapel, and a

* Called Pesequid by the Acadians.

Presbyterian, Baptist, and Methodist meeting-house ; also a Court-house, and of necessity a jail. We must not forget a good hotel. The private houses, about one hundred and thirty, are prettily built, and comfortable within, with large gardens and orchards attached ; and the surrounding country exhibits extraordinary beauty and fertility.

On an elevated and beautiful spot of ground, a short distance from Windsor, and forty miles by a good carriage road west from Halifax, stands the University of King's College. It has a royal charter, dated 1802, which gives to it all the privileges that are enjoyed by the Universities in Great Britain and Ireland. It is liberally endowed ; has a respectable library ; the Archbishop of Canterbury is its patron, and the Governor, Chief-Justice, Judge of the Court of Vice-Admiralty, the Bishop of Nova Scotia, the President, the Speaker of the House of Assembly, the Attorney-General, the Solicitor-General, and the Secretary of the Province, compose, *ex officio*, a board of governors.

There is a water communication between Windsor and New Brunswick, and that province has hitherto sent a great proportion of the students to the college. The situation of King's College has been judiciously selected, in a central point of the province, and in a beautiful and pleasant part of the country, which has a dry and salubrious climate. I have been informed that since the first opening of the institution, no instance of fatal sickness has occurred among the students.

A very respectable academy, built of free-stone, and called the Collegiate School, stands within the college grounds. The system of instruction at this

seminary corresponds with the course of studies at the college; and this institution is in a very prosperous condition, having a numerous attendance of scholars from New Brunswick, and other places, as well as natives of Nova Scotia.

The great objection to it is, that students must subscribe to the Thirty-nine Articles; a monstrous regulation for a colony, the one-tenth of the inhabitants of which do not even profess to be members of the Church of England.*

The tract of country lying between the Avon and the river Shubenacadry is tolerably well settled, and abounds in coal, gypsum, limestone, and slate. The river Shubenacadry is a remarkably fine stream, passing through several lakes which intersect the country within a mile or two of Halifax Harbour; and which, when the canal now in rapid progress is completed, will open an inland navigation from the Head of the Bay of Fundy to Halifax. Fertile and extensive intervals and diked marshes; beautiful and well-cultivated farms; excellent building free-stone, limestone, gypsum, coal, and other minerals, abound along the banks of this river, and those of its numerous fine streams and lakes.

Truro, the most beautiful village in Nova Scotia, and, as far as my impressions go, the prettiest I have seen in America, is situated on the south side of Salmon River, and at the head of the Minas branch of the Bay of Fundy. Its marshes were diked by the Acadians; and soon after the removal of those people, Truro, or Cobequid, was settled under the auspices

* The regulation which stipulated that students, on their matriculation at Windsor College, should subscribe to the Thirty-nine Articles, has, since the text was written, been wisely dispensed with, except as respects those who take degrees in divinity.

of a Col. McNutt, an emigrant agent, by families from Massachusetts, who came originally from Londonderry, in Ireland. They suffered great misery for some years. This was also the case with those who settled on the opposite side of the river, where the beautiful settlement of Onslow lies.

The private houses of Truro are really imposing and handsome in appearance, and convenient and comfortable within. The inhabitants are also intelligent and industrious. There is a court-house, jail, custom-house, post-office, church, and Presbyterian meeting-house. Through it the post road from Halifax passes, and branches to Pictou, and to the settlements of Cumberland. I think I am safe in saying that the inns at Truro are equal to any I know of in the province. From the adjoining eminences there are extensive, but not sublime prospects, although the views are exceedingly pleasing, rich, and varied. The diked lands are fertile, and agriculture forms the chief employment of the inhabitants. They have oil-mills, grist-mills, saw-mills, and fulling-mills.

The settlements of Onslow, Londonderry, Economy, and Parsborough, occupy the northern shores of the Basin of Minas. Along this coast there are several pretty islands, and the country is interesting and tolerably well settled.

Onslow is a populous village, contains fertile lands, and one thousand four hundred acres of marsh meadows.

Londonderry was first populously settled by Acadians. Their private buildings and immense chapels were destroyed by the troops which were sent to disperse them. Its lands are richly wooded, with fertile meadows, and good uplands.

The settlement, or chain of settlements, called by the general name of Parsborough, occupies the coast of Minas Basin and the Bay of Fundy, from Economy to Point Chignecto. The lands are high, often rugged, but by no means unfertile.

The village of Parsborough, between which and Windsor a packet plies during summer, is a pretty little place, situated within a jutting, abrupt, and high headland. Good leading roads pass through these settlements, and they all appear to be in a flourishing condition.

A few miles north of Cape Chignecto, the basin so named, and sometimes called Beau Basin, forms another great branch of the Bay of Fundy, and receives several fine rivers, the largest of which, the Petit Coudiac, winds through the adjoining province. The Cumberland shores of this basin, as far as the point or ridge called on the map Boar's Back, are high, with several coves, and some alluvial tracts, and rough but fertile uplands. The diked marshes and meadows along the rivers at the head of this basin, present the most fertile character imaginable. Herds of cattle, stacks of hay, large barns, and good substantial farm houses, enrich this fertile portion of Nova Scotia.

The inhabitants are Yorkshiremen, and native descendants of Americans who left Massachusetts before the Revolution. They prefer grazing to raising grain, and send butter and cheese in great quantities to Halifax and St. John's.

The river Missiquash, on the north side of which stood Fort Beau Sejour (now Fort Cumberland), and on the other was afterwards built Fort Lawrence,

bounds the north-western extremity of Nova Scotia, which it here separates from New Brunswick.

The proposed canal from River Au Lac to Tidnish River, which would intersect the imaginary line which divides Nova Scotia from New Brunswick, and open a direct intercourse by water between the Gulf of St. Lawrence and the Bay of Fundy, would doubtless be attended with great benefit and convenience, by obviating a circuitous and dangerous navigation. The best line has been surveyed by Mr. Hall, a skilful engineer. The length is about eleven miles, and the expense, to make a canal navigable for vessels drawing eight feet water, estimated at about 70,000/. Some engineers consider a *railroad* preferable to a canal over this place.

The Bay of Vert is the most northerly inlet and boundary of Nova Scotia. Entering from the Gulf of St. Lawrence, it contracts the country to an isthmus of about ten miles over to Cumberland Basin. This bay is about twelve miles long, and from five to seven broad, with its shores flat and muddy, but pretty thickly settled. Nova Scotia claims but the south side.

River Phillip, a long winding stream, is the next place of any consequence on the Gulf shore, but not navigable for large vessels. It abounds with salmon, gaspereau, and other fish; and its fine lands have been long settled; but the lumber business has been too much followed, to the detriment of agricultural improvement. Several salt springs are found near it.

Pugwash River, or, as it has lately been called, Waterford, has the same *embouchure* as river Phillip, and is a fine river, navigable for large vessels; but having a bar, and a very crooked channel, a pilot is

necessary. The timber trade, which has diverted the inhabitants from agriculture, has also retarded cultivation, and presents a striking contrast to the beautiful lands settled by Scotch Highlanders, lying along the shore between this place and the next harbours. The latter people, as well as those at Fox Harbour, were hardy, industrious emigrants from the Hebrides ; ignorant, however, of improved methods of cultivating the soil, yet by adhering to rural labour, they have not only obtained a better livelihood than the lumberers, but they have good farms, with extensive clearings, which secure them against the evils of poverty.

Remsheg, which has lately changed its name to Port Wallace, is a good harbour, with two or three small rivers, and one of considerable length falling into it. It was first settled with loyalists, some of whom afterwards left the place. The lands are excellent ; but here again they have been too much neglected for the timber business. The freestone, of which the Province Building of Halifax is constructed, was quarried a few miles up Remsheg River, vast quantities of which exist at the same place. Herrings and gaspereau are very plentiful in these harbours. Salmon, shad, eels, lobsters, &c. abound.

A few miles to the southward is Tatmagouche Bay, which is broad and open ; and, although the water is deep, exposed to north-easterly winds. It is also a port for shipping timber, and the lands are good and pretty well settled.

From the south side of Tatmagouche, the River John, over which there is a good bridge, branches off. This pretty thriving settlement was settled many years ago by Swiss Protestants ; they endured a train of

severe hardships from the time they left their native country, until they attained the means of comfort where they or their descendants now live.*

There is a pretty good road from this place, about eighteen miles to Pictou. The coast along the shore, about twenty miles, to the harbour of Carraboo, is settled by Scotch, chiefly from the Hebrides.

* There is some interest attached to the history of these families. When, after the peace of 1763, the dread of these kingdoms being depopulated by emigrations to America was entertained very generally, the conditions of grants of large tracts of land, in Nova Scotia and in the colonies we acquired by conquest, stipulated that they should be settled on by foreign Protestants. The Swiss, here alluded to, were brought either to Portamouth or Plymouth, by an officer who received a grant of lands in Nova Scotia; but being unable, or unwilling, to fulfil his engagements with them, he there abandoned them. Their destitute condition came under the consideration of government, and they were sent to Nova Scotia at the public expense. I believe these are the leading points relative to their removal to Nova Scotia; but I only write from my recollection of the account given me, by one of the oldest and most respectable of them, some years ago.

CHAP. XI.

PICTOU. — COLLEGE, ETC. — INHABITANTS. — EARLY SETTLEMENT. — GRANTS. — ALBION MINES. — MIRAGAMICHE. — GULF SHORE. — ANTIGONICHE, ETC.

Pictou harbour is one of the best within the Gulf of St. Lawrence.

It is narrow at the entrance, well sheltered, with seventeen feet depth of water at the lowest ebb; deep and safe within, and sufficiently capacious for more than a thousand ships. Three fine rivers, which wind through a fertile country, branch from the basin, a little above the town. The harbour is, however, frozen over from the last week or end of December, to the beginning or end of April; this is its only disadvantage.

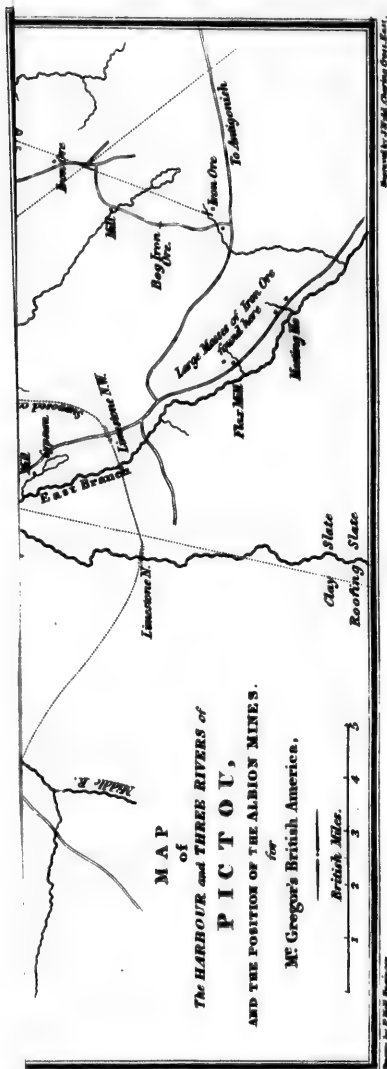
The town of Pictou stands on the declivity of a hill, on the north side of the harbour, and about three miles from its entrance. It is irregularly built, without any plan. Every one who erected a house, since the year 1790, when the first hut inhabited by an European raised its head, planted it where he could, and of dimensions and plan according to his fancy. Its situation is very agreeable. The point of land, called Mortimer's, above the town, with stores and wharfs near the shore, and with a large and very respectable stone house some distance back; Fisher's Grant being a range of farms opposite the town; other fine clearings around the harbour; the *embouchures* of three rivers and the hilly wooded

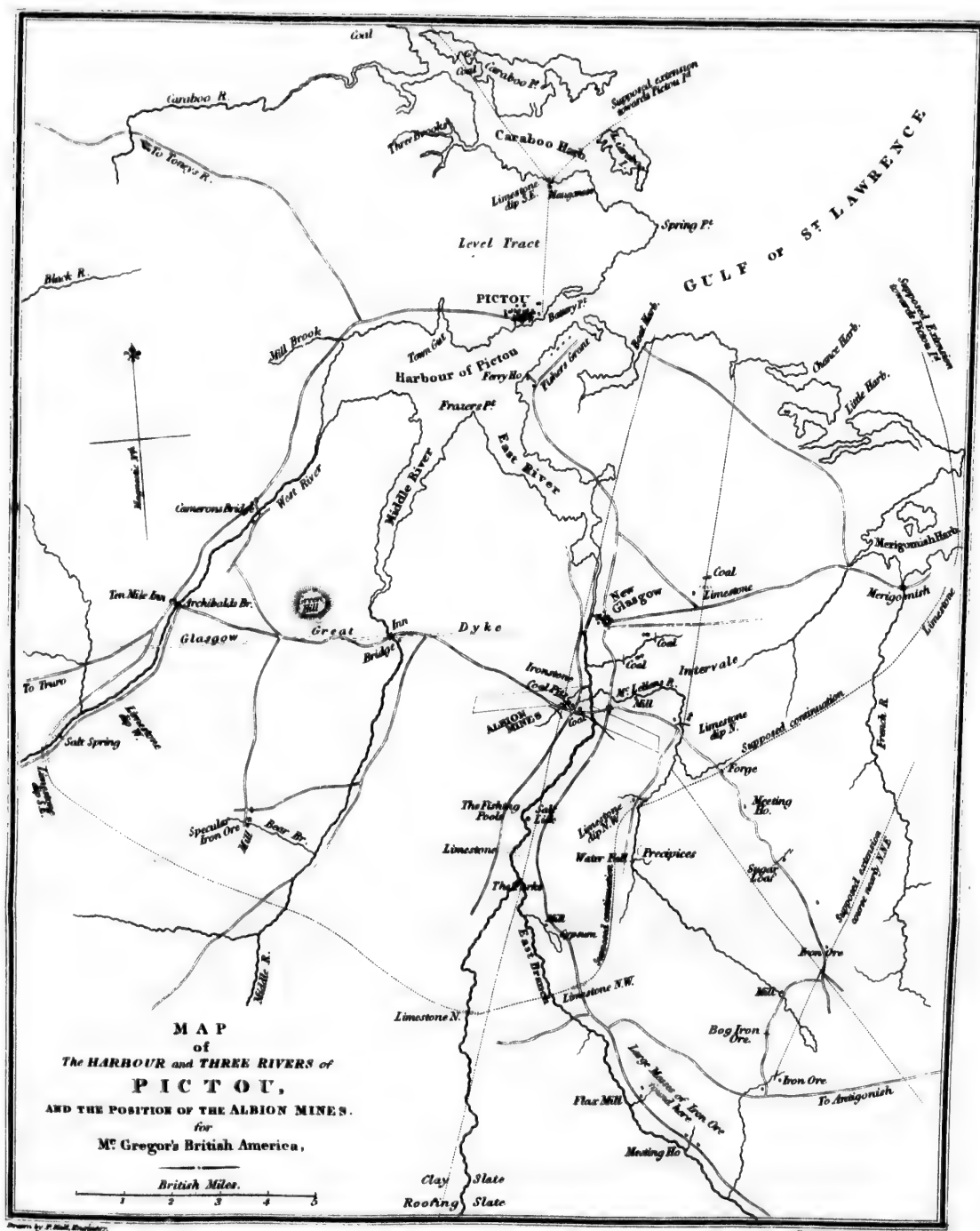
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background of Mount Tom, are interesting and picturesque features in the surrounding scenery. The hill above the town commands a very extensive and truly grand view of farms, houses, the harbour, Gulf of St. Lawrence, and forest country.

The town contains at the present time an Episcopal church, two Presbyterian kirks, a Catholic chapel, and a court-house; about two hundred dwelling-houses, stores, and other buildings, and about sixteen hundred inhabitants. Pictou has also an excellent grammar school, and an academy called "Pictou College," where the highest branches of education are taught, and to which students of any Christian denomination are admitted. This institution owes its existence to the Rev. Dr. M'Culloch, a gentleman of superior acquirements, learning, and abilities. It contains a commodious class-room, a library of good standard works; a laboratory, with philosophical apparatus, printing-press, &c.; and a museum, in which is to be found the only zoological collection worth mentioning of the natural history of the province. The department of ornithology is nearly complete, and the birds remarkably well stuffed and preserved. It is to be regretted that the academy has met with very uncharitable opposition, and I believe the fund given to aid its support has been withdrawn.

The settlement of the district of Pictou commenced by the arrival of a few families from Maryland in 1765, which were sent by a company who received a very extensive grant of land known in the province by the name of the "Philadelphia Grant." At the head of this company was Dr. Weatherspoon, a man celebrated at the time in colonial story. These

people, although they received some assistance in the way of provisions, endured great misery for some years; and thirty families of Highlanders who joined them afterwards, underwent almost incredible difficulties, in consequence of arriving late in the season, having no houses to shelter them, wanting provisions, the general wilderness state at that time of this part of the province, and its great distance from the nearest settlement.*

In the course of a few years, however, great perseverance enabled them to secure the means of living comfortably; and, from that period, this part of the country has continued to improve regularly in its settlement and agriculture; and the port has also continued to be a great *point d'appui* for emigrant ships leaving the Highlands and Isles of Scotland. Settlements consequently extended up the rivers, and along the shores to the north and south-east; and Pictou, therefore, derives its importance from being the centre of all the intercourse and trade, as well as the port of entry, for that part of Nova Scotia lying between the Gut of Canseau and the Bay de Vert.

It was some time ago declared, by an order in council, a free port; and lately, in consequence of the benefit that would probably arise from allowing the Americans to bring articles of United States' growth in their ships, in return for the coal which they require from the Albion mines, it has also been declared a free warehousing port.

The inhabitants of the town of Pictou are remark-

* The first settlers had often, during winter, to cross the country, a distance of nearly fifty miles through the woods, for what little food they could drag back on a hand-sledge, to sustain the lives of their wives and children.

ably industrious. Fishing, ship-building, shipping timber, coal, &c., have for many years formed their principal resources of enterprise. Their incessant perseverance merits great praise; and although the heavy and visionary speculations in shipping, carried on in the memorable year 1825 in England, was grievously felt by the merchants and traders of this place, yet their usual industry and economy will soon, it is likely, enable them to surmount those losses, and prosper by less speculative pursuits.

Several ships still arrive annually at Pictou for timber, most of which finish their lading at the neighbouring outports. There are also some vessels employed in the West India trade, and several schooners and shallops in the coasting trade, and fisheries.

A packet sails weekly between Pictou and Charlotte Town, Prince Edward Island; the distance is about forty miles. Few places in America are more unlike than these two. Charlotte Town is nearly twice the size, and the houses are scattered over five times the same ground as those of Pictou. Charlotte Town is infinitely a cleaner place; the houses have also in general an air of greater gentility; the inhabitants are more fashionably dressed, have more the appearance of people who have either never been engaged in active industrious pursuits, or who have retired with small incomes to a country where they can live very cheaply. In Pictou again, the houses are closely huddled together, some of them built of stone, scarcely any of them with taste or beauty; they have a smoky appearance, and cleanliness is a most striking desideratum; but the place has vastly more the air of activity, industry and trade. The wharfs, stores, and the *tout ensemble*, indicate a pre-

vailing spirit of enterprise. Charlotte Town has nothing of this.

The town, and whole district of Pictou, are decidedly Scottish. In the streets, within the houses, in the shops, on board the vessels, and along the roads, we hear little but Gaelic or broad Scotch. The Highland dress, the bagpipe, and Scottish music, are also more general in this part of the province than probably in any other part of the country; while the red gowns of the students, which we observe waving here and there like streamers, bring the colleges of Aberdeen and Glasgow, with their associations, into recollection.

Pictou has also a share of its distinction, from being the place in which the synod of the Presbyterian church of Nova Scotia is held. Presbyterianism, indeed, as respects the present British American colonies, may be said to have been first planted in this district. The late Rev. Dr. James M'Gregor, who left the comforts of a British home, in 1786, to seek toil and privation amidst the forests of Nova Scotia, may justly be considered the father of the Presbyterian church of the province. This venerable and excellent man, who died lately (1830), was peculiarly adapted for a country like Nova Scotia. He arrived in it when it was little more than a continued wilderness. He lived to see it extensively cultivated, and in most parts settled, with roads opened between the settlements, and schools generally established over the province. He had none of the bigotry of sectarians; he mixed cheerfully with all men; the wicked he endeavoured to reclaim, but never attempted to promulgate religious dissensions, nor ever to wound the feelings of any on account of their difference of

creed. He was, in short, in his own line of duty, the most harmless and most useful of men.

When we arrive as strangers in Pictou, and behold its extraordinary natural advantages, the excellence of its harbour, the fertility of the adjoining country, its vast mines of iron and coal, with limestone, and excellent freestone for building, and the convenience of the place for the rich fisheries of the Gulf of St. Lawrence, it is truly painful, if not disgusting, to discover soon after, that society has, for the last few years, been in a state of violent agitation, principally from the passion for religious ascendancy, probably as much from fanciful individual vanity: when we also find that the very parties who render themselves so truly ridiculous in the cool judgment of reasonable minds, differ, not in doctrines of faith, but in some unimportant matter or form of church government, we are still more disgusted at squabbles that cannot possibly originate from honest religious principles or Christian charity. Which of the parties have the best pretensions, it is not, even if it were possible, (which I doubt,) my object to determine; but we cannot but condemn the spirit that disturbs the harmony which prevailed among the Presbyterians of the province; and regret the existence of animosities which convulse the minds of a population that have ample scope for being so much better, so much more usefully engaged.*

* Much has been said of Roman Catholic bigotry and intolerance. I have not been able to discover a solitary instance of the clergy of that church interfering with the professors of a different creed, nor endeavouring to disseminate quarrels or agitations among them; while I regret to have to observe that the Presbyterians who consider themselves in immediate connection with

The lands, a great part of which is intervale, through which the west river of Pictou winds for about sixteen miles, are fertile and extensively cultivated. The middle river is a small stream, but its banks are well settled and improved.

The east river, which divides into two principal streams, flows through a beautiful, fertile, and populous settlement. Six miles up this river, a village, with a few shops and taverns, in the form of a small American town, called New Glasgow, has risen within the last few years. It receives and exports a great part of the agricultural produce of the upper country, and vessels of about one hundred tons come up to the bridge which crosses the town at this place.

A mile above this village (see the map), on the west side of the river, close to Mount Rundel, are the coal and iron mining works of the General Mining Company. This establishment is named the "Albion Mines;" and the company, which was formed in London in 1826, holds for sixty years, on certain conditions from the crown, the right of working all the mines of Nova Scotia and Cape Breton, with the exception of those that may be found in a few tracts which have been granted without reserving the mines to the Crown. The Annapolis Iron Mining Company, which commenced working previously on a small scale on land held by one of these grants, is the only mining establishment in the province that can in any way compete with the General Mining Company.

the Kirk of Scotland, and the Anti-burghers, who, in fact, believe precisely the same doctrines, maintain frequently towards each other the most angry spirit of illiberality.

The operations of the last association have been conducted with spirit.

At the Albion Mines there are smithy furnaces and two steam-engines at work. Stores and several dwelling-houses have also been erected. The coal formerly dug up was from near the surface, but the main shaft of the mine worked at present is sunk two hundred and fifty feet deep, and the coal is raised and the mine drained by steam power. The coal of this mine is not esteemed so much as that of Cape Breton for common fireplaces, but it is much superior for making coke, and equal to any ever used for the furnace, and particularly as fuel for steam-engines. Iron ore, equal to the very best Swedish, is abundantly interstratified with coal in the same mine.

The Pictou coal is greatly valued by the citizens of the United States, and their ships come to the Albion Mines for it. Some plan is, however, necessary to ship the coals more expeditiously. This company has one steam-boat now in the colony; another fine steam-vessel has lately (1833) been launched in the Thames, to be despatched across the Atlantic. Since they commenced their operations, a marked spirit of industry, activity, and improvement, has spread over the vale of the east river. With judicious economical management, these mines may be worked to great profit: 12,020 chaldrons were exported last year. The great object with the company should be, to ship the coals at a price so low as to make it a business of considerable gain for the Americans to carry them off in large quantities.

Some may object to the extensive privilege granted to the Albion Mining Company, but not with good

reason, when we consider the vast investment of capital necessary to form extensive establishments, and to carry forward the operations of mining, and that the province generally, and this part of it in particular, must derive vast advantage from the spirited exertions of this association.

Miragamiche is the next harbour to the eastward of Pictou. It has a bar across the entrance, but there is water over it for large vessels. The settlers are principally Scotch Highlanders. From this place to Cape George *, a distance of thirty miles, and from thence round to Dorchester, at the head of Antigonishe Bay, the lands are high, but fertile, and thickly settled by Highlanders, among whom Gaelic continues to be the language of common usage ; and at the settlement of Arisaig, on the Gulf shore side of this part of the country, a traveller discovers little in language, habits, dress, and Highland hospitality, that differs from what he would find in Arisaig, in the Western Highlands of Scotland, from whence that of Nova Scotia derives its name.

The village of Antigoniche (or, as it has lately been named, Dorchester) stands five miles up this river, above the harbour so called, at the head of a deep bay, and in the midst of a beautiful fertile country. It is the shire town of the county of Sydney, and contains sixty or seventy houses, with a court-house, a large Catholic chapel, a Presbyterian and a Baptist meeting-house. Roads branch off

* A sandy cove, near Cape George, is called Malignant Cove, not from any evil connected with its history, nor from any forbidding feature in its appearance, but from the Malignant frigate having run ashore on its beach, to avoid the certain destruction of all on board, on the iron-bound coast to the eastward.

from this very pretty village to various parts of the province.

Between Antigoniche and the Gut of Canseau lie the small harbours of Pomquet, Tracadie, and Aubushè, the inhabitants of which are Acadian French, who employ themselves in the occupations of farming, fishing, and coasting with their shallops. They neglect the cultivation of the soil too much for the latter pursuit, and are, consequently, not so independent in their means, nor so simple in their manners, as the Acadians of Clare.

On the south of the Gut of Canseau lies Chedebucto Bay, which enters from the Atlantic, between Madame Island and Cape Canseau. It is twenty-five miles in length, and from ten to twelve in breadth. At the head of this bay there is a beautiful inlet, called Milford Haven, about a mile wide, and twelve or fifteen in length. It admits large vessels, but its entrance is intricate. On each side stands a pretty village; that on the north is called Manchester, the other, opposite, Guysborough. They contain about fifty houses each, but the latter is the county town, and has a court-house, Episcopal church, Catholic chapel, and Methodist meeting-house. The lands bordering on this inlet and river are of excellent quality, and the scenery luxuriant and remarkably pretty.

The shores of Chedebucto Bay, and particularly at Fox Island, are the great resorts of the herring and mackerel fishermen, and abound in fish of various kinds in extraordinary plenty.

Canseau harbour, with its islands, on one of which there is a lighthouse, was formerly a place where very extensive fisheries were carried on, both by the

French and the English. At present there is but a very scanty population, who live principally by fishing.

From Cape Canseau to Halifax, a distance of one hundred and forty miles, and which will bring us back to where I commenced my description of the province, the whole sea-coast presents a succession of innumerable but excellent harbours, and very thinly settled by fishermen and people who employ themselves with their schooners and shallops in the coasting trade.

Description can scarcely exaggerate the ruggedness of this coast, and the general stubbornness of the soil; yet in the interior, at ten to fifteen miles from the shore, and at the head of some of the harbours, there are a few spots of good land; and along the banks of the principal rivers some tracts of excellent intervale land are met with.

The harbour and river of St. Mary, distant about a hundred miles from Halifax, though little known, yet claim some notice. A bar, with eleven feet at the lowest ebb, and with about eighteen feet at high water, is an objection to its harbour; but its channel is never frozen over, which is a great advantage.

The river is navigable for large ships eight miles, and for vessels of a hundred tons two miles farther, to the little village of Sherbrooke, which stands on a pretty spot of alluvial soil, embosomed within rugged forest land. For ten miles farther up, the river is navigated by boats, where it divides into two principal branches. Canoes can proceed about twenty-five miles up the western branch, and ten or twelve up the eastern. Five or six miles above the forks, the eastern branch divides again into two streams,

one of which issues out of a beautiful sheet of water, called Lochaber Lake, at the head of which there is a fine vale: the west branch is said to rise in Mount Tom, above Pictou, and flows fifty miles through a thickly wooded country, and among excellent tracts of intervale lands, before its confluence with the other branches.

The settlement of this neglected but important part of the province has been retarded by grants of large tracts of the best lands having been made to several persons who have neither settled on or cultivated them. The timber business has formed the chief pursuit of the inhabitants. The lands along both branches, embracing an extensive district, are adapted for agriculture; but the settlers have found it more convenient to grasp the more immediate resources of the fir forest. For five years past from twelve to fifteen large ships have loaded in this harbour with timber and deals for England. There are several saw-mills on the rivers; but agriculture and rearing cattle must eventually be considered the sources which will cause these settlements to thrive and become populous.

A road leads from Sherbrooke village, which branches to Guysborough, to the Gut of Canseau, to Antigoniche, and to Pictou. All these, however, are as yet little better than paths. The road to Halifax passes through the flourishing settlement of Musquodobit, extending along a fine river of the same name, which falls into the Atlantic thirty miles from its source.

Places of lesser note than the foregoing, and which are scattered over different parts of the province, or forming along the various roads, can only be described

by tedious repetitions, their characteristic features are so strikingly similar, and present little that could be interesting, after knowing that all embryo settlements in America are nothing more than log-houses, in small openings made in the forests, scattered along banks of rivers, roads, or the sea-shore, with occasionally a saw-mill, grist-mill, smithy, tavern, shop, place of worship, and school-house.*

* The gradual appearance of a settlement, on lands previously occupied by the forest, is beautifully described in a delightful little poem, entitled the "Rising Village," by Mr. Oliver Goldsmith, of the commissariat department, and now or lately stationed at Annapolis, Nova Scotia. He is a collateral descendant of the author of the "Deserted Village." I believe the "Rising Village" was published in this country; at all events, its merits claim approbation.

CHAP. XII.

AGRICULTURE. — FORMER NEGLECT OF SYSTEMATIC HUSBANDRY. — AGRICOLA'S LETTERS. — BOARD OF AGRICULTURE. — SOILS. — AGRICULTURAL RETURNS. — LIVE STOCK.

THE soils of the province have been already mentioned in the first chapter, and the most fertile districts pointed out in the foregoing one; it will, therefore, be sufficient to notice, in respect to the agriculture of the province, a brief account of its progress and present condition. The cultivation of the soil of Nova Scotia was long neglected for other pursuits; it was ever considered as disreputable, as if a portion of that spirit had been transplanted to the colony, which in Europe, during the feudal times, viewed husbandry as a degraded employment, in which villains or slaves should alone be engaged. A ridiculous pride certainly prevailed for a long time, and still, in some measure, exists in America, which showed itself by holding rural labour in contempt. This has been the principal cause of poverty among the old settlers, who, when any other employment offered, generally escaped from the occupation of husbandry.

Strange as it may appear in England, where such opinions will be laughed at, the petty shopkeeper, who retailed rum, sugar, and tea; the pedler, who carried about tape, thread, needles, and pins; the keeper of a common tavern, or dram-shop, the con-

stables who served the writs or summons of the justice of peace, and the cheating horse-dealer ; in short, all who made a living by scheming or rascality, considered themselves much more important persons than the truly more respectable, and assuredly more honest man who cultivated his own lands.

Unfortunately, many of the farmers themselves considered the cultivation of the soil so far beneath them, that they only held the plough from necessity, as a degraded employment, while their sons skulked from rural labour to the woods, or to seek for employment on board of the coasting vessels : — the daughters, also, were ashamed of being found engaged in the dairy, or assisting in the occupations of hay-making and harvest.

During the war, the means of living, it is true, were easily procured ; but the folly of the farmers and their families brought on poverty at the peace, which convinced, or at least should have taught them, that those who have to depend on their labour cannot attain real independence in America, without applying their industry with unremitting energy to the cultivation of the soil.

The distress which came among the inhabitants along with the last peace, produced, however, great benefit to the province, by leaving agriculture as the only certain occupation from which relief could be obtained.

During the administration of the Earl of Dalhousie, the attention of government and of the inhabitants was directed, with great spirit, to the cultivation of the soil. Much of the merit of the extraordinary excitement which gave birth to a new train of ideas on the subject of agriculture must be attributed to a

long series of letters on the subject, under the signature of "Agricola," which were published in one of the weekly papers, and written with great vigour and ability.*

A provincial board of agriculture was therefore formed in 1817, under the immediate patronage of the Earl of Dalhousie, the governor, at Halifax; and numerous branch societies were soon after formed in every district in the colony. The objects of this board are, — the encouragement of agriculture, on the most approved system; improving the breed of horses and all kinds of live stock; importing the best kinds of seeds; awarding prizes for the best acres of green and white crops, the finest cattle, and to those who excel at ploughing-matches. Under such encouragement, the agriculture of Nova Scotia has advanced more rapidly than, from the ideas previously entertained respecting its climate and soil, was considered possible. Before this time, the cultivation of the soil was certainly attended to only in the most slovenly and barbarous manner. Mr. Young observes very justly, — "The principles of vegetation were so grossly misconceived, that few even of the farmers imagined that plants, like animals, stood in need of food, and manures of all kinds were either disregarded, or shamefully thrown away. The dung by many was suffered to accumulate about the barns, till it became a question of expediency whether it was less expensive to shift the site of the building, or remove

* The author, Mr. John Young, formerly of Glasgow, was not known for a long time to the public as the writer of *Agricola's Letters*. He is at present a member of the Provincial Parliament of Nova Scotia. *Agricola's Letters* have been since published at Halifax, in one large octavo volume.

such an intolerable nuisance, and several instances are on record where the former alternative was preferred." *

Soon after the establishment of the Central Board of Agriculture, the Scottish system of husbandry began to spread over all parts of the province, at least so far as it could be adapted to the nature of the country; for forest lands undergo in clearing, and for two or three years after, a particular mode of husbandry.†

Great, however, as the change and improvement in the agriculture of the province has been, we must yet consider farming, comparatively speaking, in a rude state. There still exists a lazy attachment to the make-shift system,—an absence of neatness, amidst luxuriant vegetation. In short, the mere means of living are too easily obtained; and, when this is the case, the stimulus to improvement and the attainment of order seems to cease. Time, and a great increase of population, will alone create an effective change.

The soil will produce, and the climate ripen, all the agricultural productions of England in great

* I have observed at New London, in Prince Edward Island, the dung in several heaps, as high as the cow-houses, on one farm only, but in the other colonies the circumstance was formerly common. Manures were formerly, and in many parts still, as much neglected in the United States as in Nova Scotia. We learn from the travels of Professor Kalm, a Swedish gentleman, that, in 1749, when a spot of ground was exhausted by repeated crops, rather than manure it, the inhabitants preferred clearing and cultivating a fresh piece of forest land. The remarks in this chapter are generally applicable to America.

† See the manner of clearing and cultivating forest lands, vol. ii. book 9.

perfection. The uplands, intervalles, and diked marshes, have each their peculiar features and qualities.

Uplands are those which are neither overflown by the tides nor by the freshets occasioned by the waters that swell the rivers and streams, when the sun and spring thaws dissolve the winter snows. The uplands are always fertile when they naturally produce maple, beech, and black or yellow birch, with a mixture of other trees.

Intervalle land consists of flat tracts along the rivers and brooks, originally formed of deposits carried down from the uplands by the spring freshets. We find this description of soil along all the rivers of North America. Its fertility appears greater when long narrow rivers wind through it, than when occurring along the banks of broad rivers.

The vast tracts of marsh lands in this province, from which the tides are shut out by embankments, are also of alluvial formation ; being partly formed by deposits brought down by the thaws, and partly by the mud and other substances thrown up by the impetuosity of the tides.

The *aboiteau*, an Acadian term, is a mound raised on a foundation secured by piles, and provided with flood-gates. The lands thus recovered form in many parts extensive plains, which produce luxuriant crops of grain, or become the richest pastures in the world. A marsh, after being newly diked, is left three or more years untilled, during which period it becomes firm and fit for the plough.

Wheat, although scarcely ever cultivated with great care, produces, at an average, on marsh, intervalle, or good uplands, from fifteen to eighteen returns,

or about thirty bushels per acre. On newly tilled lands, especially on diked marshes and intervalles, twenty-five returns, or fifty bushels per acre, is a common crop. Wheat crops often fail in America, not in growing, but from the grain being checked in ripening by rust or blight; a careful selection of seed, the use of lime, and early sowing, generally ensure a good crop. Winter wheat is seldom sown; although, on lands that are sheltered by surrounding wood, it yields much greater returns than summer wheat, and ripens so much earlier, that it is never affected by either rust, blight, or the Hessian fly. On lands exposed to the sweeping snow storms and drifts, which lay the ground bare, and expose it to intense frost, and which, after a thaw, becomes incrustated with ice, winter wheat will not succeed; but the enclosure and subdivision of fields with hedges for shelter would most likely, under all ordinary circumstances, ensure a good crop of winter wheat.

Indian corn produces extraordinary returns; from sixty to ninety bushels per acre are common.

Oats, buck wheat, barley, and rye, are always certain crops. Beans may be raised in vast abundance: they are frequently sown along with Indian corn, and we sometimes observe pumpkins also growing intermingled with them.

Good land will produce about two hundred bushels of excellent potatoes per acre; turnips, mangel wurzel, carrots, cabbages, and all kinds of culinary vegetables, grow to great perfection.

White and red clover, and timothy, are the grasses cultivated: two to four tons per acre may be considered the general crop.

What is said, hereafter, of seed-time, haymaking,

and harvest, in treating of Prince Edward Island, applies to this province and to New Brunswick.* The cradle, an implement of American invention, in which there is a scythe fixed below a framework, is oftener used to cut down the corn than the sickle.

From the richness of intervalles and diked marshes (the latter never requiring any) manures were not formerly much used. A rotation of crops, the use of stable dung, marsh mud, and occasionally lime, have, however, for some years, been attended to; and the face of the country exhibits striking evidence of improvement.

Grazing has, in the fertile districts of Cumberland, Windsor, Cornwallis, Horton, and Annapolis, particularly in the first, been probably too much attended to, in preference to the cultivation of the lands. Excellent butter and cheese, the latter quite equal to that of Cheshire, are made in those places; and the cattle, especially the oxen, that feed among the rich pastures of the diked marshes, are remarkably large and fat.

The sheep are generally, as respects their wool, of an unprofitable breed; but they thrive well, and their meat is excellent. The swine, although the best breeds thrive remarkably well, are still the most miserable, long, lank, ill-favoured animals imaginable. An improvement is, however, observable.

The horses of Nova Scotia are rather small, but wonderfully hardy and full of spirit. They may be considered a mixed breed of the Canadian and English horses. Several excellent saddle horses may be found among them; and some English blood horses have

* See book v.

been, during the last few years, imported to the province to improve the breed.

Horticulture is but little, and always slovenly, attended to. This is generally the case all over America. The country is capable of producing many fruits in the open air that would not ripen in England, which may be accounted for from the greater heat of summer. Wild vines, covering several acres, were discovered a few years ago near Digby.

The Acadians had small orchards on all their farms, clumps of the apple-trees of which are still in existence. On the settlement of the country by emigrants from the New England and Southern States, the raising of apple-trees was not neglected by them; and we may have as good apples produced in Nova Scotia as in any part of America. In the orchards of Windsor, Cornwallis, Horton, &c., great quantities are raised, from which excellent cider is made for domestic use and exportation.

Along with the progress of improvement in the cultivation of the soil, a great improvement has also taken place in preparing its productions for use. Much more attention is directed to the construction of grist-mills, and cleaning and grinding wheat, barley, and oats, than formerly. Oat or shelling mills have been also erected in the agricultural districts; and the ploughs, harrows, and carts of the farmers, are generally well made. Greater care is also taken in the salting of meat, which was long most unpardonably neglected.

The slovenly want of arrangements which we still discover among the farmers may be attributed to two causes—the high price of labour, which will long prevent gentlemen from becoming to any great extent

practical farmers, and the facility with which the labouring farmer can obtain the necessaries of life.

Generally speaking of the climate and soil, we must admit that a great belt of the province, extending along the whole Atlantic coast, is for many miles back as rugged and sterile as any part of the habitable globe; and that the chilly sea-fogs, even where a little soil is to be found, will always render the culture of wheat uncertain; while experience has, at the same time, proved, beyond dispute, that a vast proportion of Nova Scotia is eminently adapted by nature for a rich agricultural country.

CHAP. XIII.

TRADE. — COMMERCIAL RESOURCES. — EXPORTS AND IMPORTS.
— WHALE, HERRING, AND COD FISHERIES, ETC.

THE geographical position and configuration of Nova Scotia, with its natural resources, give this colony most important advantages in respect to commerce.

Its fisheries, mineral riches, forests, and pastures, afford abundant resources for obtaining articles of export, while its soil is at the same time capable of producing plenty of food for its inhabitants.

Halifax, with Quebec, St. John's in New Brunswick, Kingston in Jamaica, and Bridgetown in Barbadoes, were, by an order in council, made, in 1818, free and warehousing ports. The same privilege has since been extended to Pictou, Sydney, and some other ports.

The imports of Nova Scotia, as has been observed under the head of Halifax, consist principally of British manufactures and West India produce; while the privileges extended to that port and Pictou, as free and warehousing ports, constitute them places of deposit for foreign productions and manufactures to be distributed to other ports.

The export trade consists, in the first place, of timber, a very small share of which is carried on from Halifax; but this trade has for many years employed a great number of ships, which have loaded princi-

pally at Pictou, Port Wallace, Le Have, Port Medway, and Liverpool.

The timber and lumber shipped at Halifax is carried thither from the outports; and great quantities of deals, boards, shingles, and scantling*, to make up assorted cargoes for the West Indies, might be brought to Halifax by the Shubenacadty Canal, if finished.

Gypsum, which the Americans will always require for manure, has long formed an article of export; and the produce of the coal-mines of this province has become an important export to the United States. Nova Scotia, in respect to other parts of America, must hereafter be what Newcastle, Sunderland, and Maryport are to the United Kingdom.

The fisheries, however, claim, at the present time, the first right to our attention.

The whale-fishery, which was at one time carried on with great activity from Dartmouth, has been, as already observed, revived with much spirit by the merchants of Halifax. This branch of enterprise has long been profitably followed by the inhabitants of Nantucket, and the seaports from Cape Cod to New London. The character of these people is grave, sober, and persevering; and they retain much of the deportment which characterised their ancestors, who were either Quakers or Puritans. Their ships in this employment, or their whale-fleet, amount to about two hundred, registering from two hundred to six hundred tons. With these vessels they navigate the greatest oceans and most stormy regions.

* Scantling means timber hewed, or sawed, to the proper size for beams, rafters, and other parts of the framework of a house.

Their voyages average about two and a half years, but they are fitted out for three years; and care is taken to have every article that may be considered necessary to promote the comfort and preserve the health of the crews.

The preparation for whaling voyages, and the departures of the ships, are attended with the most interesting circumstances. The mothers, wives, sisters, or daughters of these hardy and adventurous men, are, long before the day of sailing, busily engaged in collecting every delicacy for the voyage, and providing and packing up all sorts of clothing suitable for the stormy and cold rigours of the Antarctic regions, as well as for the mild climate and gentle seas of the Pacific. On parting with them for a period of nearly, or more than three years, the old, middle-aged, and young of both sexes, manifest, in the most tender and affectionate manner, all the endearing feelings of the heart.

Some of these ships proceed round Cape Horn, others round the Cape of Good Hope, and they frequently meet in the Pacific. The Indian, Chinese, and Pacific Oceans are better known to these men than to any other navigators; and to this circumstance, and their great caution in keeping two men always stationed at the mast-head, on the look-out for land or breakers, must be attributed the very few shipwrecks among them,—for they certainly navigate the most boisterous regions, and the most imperfectly known seas, especially on the charts, in the world. The dangers to which they are exposed are great in the extreme, and innumerable are the hazards they encounter.

The whales most valued are considered as be-

coming scarcer, and ships are going farther south than before; and those engaged in the South Sea seal-fishery proceed still farther than the whalers towards the South Pole. The ships seldom remain more than three months at a time over each whaling ground.

During these long voyages, the young men receive instructions, from those older, in mathematics, navigation, geography, the natural history of the South Seas, and in practical knowledge connected with their hazardous profession. They occasionally land and refresh themselves in some of the beautiful islands of the Pacific, and return on shipboard, invigorated and recruited, to follow their proper pursuits.

In the two large ships fitted out for the South Seas at Halifax, and in the one equipped for the Brazil Bank, about sixty young men, natives of the colony, have gone out for the purpose of qualifying themselves for the South Sea whale-fishery; and from the intrepid character of the Nova Scotians, and the flattering accounts of the success of these ships, there is every reason to expect that the whale-fishery will hereafter become a most important part of the trade of the province.*

The seal-fishery, for which Halifax and the Atlantic ports of Nova Scotia are well situated, is only of recent standing; but this branch of enterprise is likely to be followed up with spirit.

The cod-fishery of the province is of much importance to it, in providing a portion of the assorted cargoes required in the West Indies; but encourage-

* Three of these ships have returned with very fair success. There are now five or six ships in all fitted out from Halifax.

ment, extended by the legislature to the fisheries, in the shape of bounties, has been found expedient to enable the fishermen to compete with the Americans on the coast of Labrador.

The shores of Nova Scotia may be considered as the greatest resort of herring and mackerel fishermen.

A small variety of herrings, exceedingly fat and delicious, frequent the shores of the Bay of Fundy in May ; and about the end of the month enter Annapolis Basin, where, on the shore of Clements, they have been caught in amazing quantities. They are usually smoked or cured as red herrings, and packed up in boxes, which hold each half a bushel, and contain about two hundred. A hundred thousand boxes of these have been exported during some years, but they are said not to be so plentiful as formerly.

Herrings of large size, full of spawn, arrive in all the harbours in May ; but these, although taken in great quantities, are poor, and not much esteemed. The spring mackerel are also lean, and not much valued, although they keep better than others in hot climates.

The fall herrings and mackerel are exceedingly fat, and much esteemed. The regulations, by legislative enactment, for inspecting the quality of fish packed up in the province, which must all be in new casks, have, although complained of at first, established the preference for the pickled fish of Nova Scotia in foreign markets.

Crow Harbour, and Fox Island, both near each other, and within Chedebucto Bay, have always, especially in autumn, been the great resort of mackerel and herrings. Nets are sometimes used, but the

great bulk of the fish is caught with seines. These places, while the fishing season lasts, are generally the scenes of the most lawless disorder and licentiousness, occasioned by the violence of the fishermen contending for the best places to haul their seines ashore; the pillaging of the fish; the selling and drinking of rum; the smuggling of goods by the Americans; the exactions of those who possess the lands bordering on the shores; and often from the mere spirit of spoliation and mischief. A ship of war has been occasionally sent round from Halifax to preserve some sort of order among the multitudes of men, boats, and schooners that resort to these harbours; and certainly these fisheries, from their great importance, require protection and the establishment of regularity for their governance.

A novel method of catching mackerel was some time ago discovered by the fertile genius of the Americans. The method is, simply, on arriving over the fishing grounds, to cut up in very small pieces a quantity of old pickled herring or mackerel, for the mincing of which the Americans have also invented an instrument, and on scattering the same in the sea, round the vessel, myriads of mackerel appear near the surface, when they are caught, as fast as they can be taken in, with a rod and line, the hook being baited with a small piece of shark or mackerel. Sprinkling salt on the surface of the water is said to have the same effect, but it is more expensive.

CHAP. XIV.

SEMINARIES OF EDUCATION. — RELIGION. — POPULATION. —
REMARKS ON THE MANNERS AND CUSTOMS OF THE INHABITANTS OF NOVA SCOTIA.

WHAT places Nova Scotia, more than any other circumstance connected with its history or establishments, in a point of view that has accelerated its prosperity, while it at the same time gave an intellectual ascendancy to those brought up in the colony, is, that the benefits of education were always, or at least since the American revolutionary war, to be obtained in the province. Amidst all the active engagements of the inhabitants, in occupations where the acquisition of wealth is the sole object, they have not neglected to cultivate the field of learning. It would, indeed, appear as if they were, from their first settling in the country, fully impressed with the truth, that New England owed its prosperity as a country, and its inhabitants power and property as a people, in consequence of the superior intelligence of its population, and the liberal provision that was always made in that state for the education of youth.

It will be considered, I am aware, matter of some astonishment in England, where we so frequently hear the deplorable ignorance of the North American colonists talked of, that we will find, on becoming properly acquainted with Nova Scotia, that it is a

matter of doubt whether more general and useful knowledge, among all grades of the population, can be discovered in any country than will be found to prevail in this province. Many of those born and educated in it have distinguished themselves not only at home, but in different parts of the world; and the natives generally possess a ready power of apprehension, a remarkably distinct knowledge of the general affairs of life, and the talent of adapting themselves to the circumstances of such situations as chance, direction, or necessity may place them in.

The college of Windsor, from its constitution, claims the first notice among the seminaries of education; but it is much to be regretted that the illiberal spirit which has restricted the admission of students to those only who subscribed to the Thirty-nine Articles, has prevented the province from deriving general benefit from this college.*

To obviate this objection, Dalhousie College, a handsome and commodious edifice, was built at Halifax during the administration of the noble earl whose name it retains, and nearly 10,000*l.* invested in the funds for its maintenance. Its constitution is similar to that of the University of Edinburgh; but some difficulties connected with its funds or management have as yet prevented its being opened for the admission of students.†

There is an excellent grammar school established at Halifax. Also a national school, and one on the

* See note, p. 370.

† An academy has been opened for some time in this building; and the annual examination of the pupils in English reading and grammar, in Latin, Greek, French, mathematics, &c., which

Lancasterian system, which was established by Mr. Bromley in 1813.

Besides these institutions, there are at Halifax Sunday schools, a very large school for the Catholics, and several smaller schools. Grammar schools have also been established in each county, and common schools in the settlements.

I have already mentioned the excellent academy and grammar school at Pictou; I trust that party feelings will not prevent the prosperity of these useful institutions.

The Provincial Legislature grants about 4000% annually, to aid the maintenance of the various seminaries of education.

The Episcopal Church of England is established, by provincial statute, as the fixed form of worship, but without the power of assuming any control over any other denomination of Christians. All religious professions are not only tolerated, but may be considered perfectly free.

The population of the province, including Cape Breton, may safely be estimated at 180,000; consisting of natives, the descendants of Europeans, English, Scotch, Irish, American loyalists, Germans, Acadian French, Indians, and freed negroes. Their religious professions may agree nearly with the last census; and, including Cape Breton also, may be distributed in the following order: —

took place on the 30th of July last (1830), afforded the most satisfactory proofs of the abilities of the reverend gentleman who directs the tuition, and of the rapid, yet sound progress of the scholars.

Inhabitants, including children, classed as professing			
the creed and forms of the Church of England	-	30,000	
Church of Scotland and Presbyterian Church of			
Nova Scotia	-	59,000	
Church of Rome	-	38,000	
Baptists	-	26,500	
Methodists	-	17,500	
Lutherans	-	3,000	
Dissenters from the Church of England	-	4,500	
Ditto ditto Scotland	-	500	
Universalists, Quakers, Sandemanians, Antinomians,			
Swedenborgians, and Unitarians	-	300	
Doubtful	-	700	
			180,000

The clergy of the Episcopal Church are about twenty-five in number, and supported hitherto, as missionaries, by a salary to each of two hundred pounds from the Society for Promoting Religion in Foreign Parts. The diocese of the Bishop of Nova Scotia includes also New Brunswick, Prince Edward Island, Newfoundland, and Bermuda.* The laws do not give him any control whatever over the clergy of other professions, and the Episcopal clergy possess no exclusive powers in the province, unless it be that, in consequence of the governor's having, I believe, always directed marriage licenses to them, they claim the privilege of marrying by license as their peculiar right.

The Presbyterian Church of Nova Scotia, without regard to the speculations that have created divisions

* The present bishop, Dr. Inglis, is an eloquent and highly-gifted preacher, and a gentleman of superior acquirements. Lord Howick stated in the House of Commons last year (1832), "that the clergy of the Church of England, bishops and all, would hereafter be paid by the colonies" (they being now paid by England). How this can be practically effected, I cannot comprehend.

in the Church of Scotland, has established a provincial synod, which regulates the Presbyterian Church in Nova Scotia, New Brunswick, and Prince Edward Island.

The Presbyterian clergy in these colonies are about fifty in number. Some unhappy dissensions have arisen, which I have already noticed when treating of Pictou; but still the Presbyterian Church is in a very flourishing condition, and the clergy, as a body, are intelligent, respectable, and assiduous in their avocations. They are wholly supported by their congregations.

The Roman Catholic clergy are about sixteen in number, under the control of a bishop, all of whom are respectably maintained by their congregations.

Among the Baptists, which include a numerous and respectable body of the inhabitants, each congregation is considered independent; but the whole may be said to be voluntarily governed by the decisions of their annual association meeting, which very much resembles the Wesleyan conference. The Baptist clergy are also maintained by their congregations.

The Wesleyan Methodists are in connection with the general conference in England. They have their district meetings, and also their annual conference, composed of ministers from various stations in the three aforementioned colonies. They occasionally receive some assistance from the funds of the Wesleyan Missionary Society in London; but they are principally supported by voluntary contributions from the members of their own congregations. The Methodist ministers in these Provinces are generally men of exemplary character.

Notwithstanding all that may have been said to

the contrary, these colonies have all the benefits of religious instruction as fully as the people of the United Kingdom ; and although fanaticism may have occasionally disturbed the brains of the ignorant in some particular districts, my enquiries have not, except in one or two instances, discovered any thing so extravagant as the delusion or frenzy which has lately agitated so many individuals* on the banks of the Clyde, or the wild ravings of the pretenders to " Unknown tongues " in London.

In describing the manners and peculiarities of the inhabitants of Nova Scotia, they like those who form the population of all the rest of British America, retain most of the habits and ideas which were common to the various parts from which either they themselves or their ancestors came ; modified, however, by their marrying and mingling together in the settlements, and by their mutual wants requiring mutual acts of neighbourly assistance.

The geographical position of Nova Scotia has imparted to its inhabitants a somewhat more adventurous character than is observed in the other colonies† ; and the advantages of education have given them, generally speaking, as a people, an ascendancy among the inhabitants of British America. In other respects, the observations on the manners and customs of the inhabitants of British America, towards the end of this work, may be considered equally correct in regard to Nova Scotia.

* Miss Campbell's disciples.

† Those engaged in the north-west fur trade, now connected with Hudson Bay, and the Canadian voyageurs, and boatmen form an exception to this general, but by no means particular, observation.

CHAP. XV.

ACADIAN FRENCH.

THE present condition of the Acadians, and the leading particulars of their eventful history, are both subjects too interesting to be omitted in an account of Nova Scotia, although we now find them settled in distinct villages throughout New Brunswick, Prince Edward Island, Cape Breton, and the district of Gaspè. For many years after the first French adventurers resorted to Acadia, the cultivation of the soil was neglected for hunting, fishing, and the fur trade. The rich intervalles, however, and the vast marshes which abounded within the basins of Minas and Chignecto, with the fertile lands of Port Royal or Annapolis River, at length riveted the industry of the Acadians to grazing and husbandry, and secured to them all that was necessary to render their condition as happy as can probably ever be the lot of humanity. They became strongly attached to the country, and they formed a simple, moral, and contented peasantry, who, when Nova Scotia was finally ceded, in 1710, to the crown of England, had, by regularity of conduct and steady industry, attained to affluent circumstances, in so far as possession of extensively cultivated farms, and large herds of cattle, can constitute riches.

For a long time after they changed masters, they

remained unmolested; and in giving an account of the Acadians at that period, I cannot omit the beautiful, and, I believe, just picture of their condition drawn by the Abbé Raynal.

“Such was the attachment which the French then had for the honour of their country, that the Acadians,” says the Abbé, “who, in submitting to a new yoke, had sworn never to bear arms against their former standards, were called French neutrals.

“No magistrate was ever appointed to rule over them, and they were never acquainted with the laws of England. No rents or taxes of any kind were ever exacted from them. Their new sovereign seemed to have forgotten them, and they were equally strangers to him.

“Hunting, which had formerly been the delight of the colony, and might still have supplied it with subsistence, had no further attraction for a simple and quiet people, and gave way to agriculture. It had been begun in the marshes and lowlands, by repelling the sea and rivers which covered these plains with dikes. These grounds at first yielded fifty times as much as before, and afterwards twenty times as much at least. Wheat and oats succeeded best in them, but they likewise produced rye, barley, and maize. There were also potatoes in great plenty, the use of which was become common.

“At the same time they had immense meadows, with numerous flocks. Sixty thousand head of horned cattle were computed there, and most of the families had several horses, though the tillage was carried on by oxen.

“The habitations, built chiefly of wood, were extremely convenient, and furnished as neatly as a

substantial farmer's house in Europe. The people bred a great deal of poultry of all kinds, which made a variety in their food, and which was, in general, wholesome and plentiful. Their common drink was beer and cider, to which they sometimes added rum.

" Their usual clothing was, in general, the produce of their own flax and hemp, or the fleeces of their own sheep; with these they made common linens and coarse cloths. If any of them had any inclination for articles of greater luxury, they procured them from Annapolis or Louisburg, and gave in exchange corn, cattle, or furs.

" The neutral French had no other articles to dispose of among their neighbours, and made still fewer exchanges among themselves, because each family was able, and had been used, to provide for its wants. They therefore knew nothing of paper currency, which was so common throughout the rest of North America. Even the small quantity of specie which had stolen into the colony did not promote that circulation, which is the greatest advantage that can be derived from it.

" Their manners were of course extremely simple. There never was a cause, either civil or criminal, of importance enough to be carried before the Court of Judicature established at Annapolis. Whatever little differences arose from time to time among them were amicably adjusted by their elders. All their public acts were drawn by their pastors, who had likewise the keeping of their wills, for which, and their religious services, the inhabitants voluntarily gave them a twenty-seventh part of their harvest.

" These were plentiful enough to support more than a sufficiency for every act of liberality. Real

misery was entirely unknown, and benevolence prevented the demands of poverty. Every misfortune was relieved before it was felt, and good was universally dispensed without ostentation on the part of the giver, and without humiliating the person who received. These people were, in a word, a society of brethren, every individual of which was equally ready to give and to receive what he thought the common right of mankind.

“So perfect a harmony naturally prevented all those connections of gallantry which are so often fatal to the peace of families. There never was an instance in this society of an unlawful commerce between the two sexes. This evil was prevented by early marriages; for no one passed his youth in a state of celibacy. As soon as a young man came to the proper age, the community built him a house, broke up the lands about it, sowed them, and supplied him with all the necessaries of life for a twelvemonth. Here he received the partner whom he had chosen, and who brought him her portion of flocks. This family grew up and prospered like the others. They altogether amounted to eighteen thousand souls.”

The Abbé continues to observe: —

“Who will not be affected with the innocent manners, and the tranquillity of this fortunate colony? Who will not wish for the duration of its happiness? Who will not construct in imagination an impenetrable wall, that may separate these colonists from their unjust and turbulent neighbours? The calamities of the people have no period; but, on the contrary, the end of their felicity is always at hand. A long series of favourable events is necessary to raise them from misery, while one instant is sufficient to

plunge them into it. May the Acadians be exempted from this general curse! But, alas! it is to be feared they will not.”*

The fears of Raynal were too truly realised. I have already briefly observed, in a former chapter, the miserable dispersion of the Acadians. Their sufferings in the southern colonies, to which they were transported, were severe and undeserved. They were treated not like innocent men, but as if they were condemned convicts.

They were accused of having joined the troops from Canada: but those who did so, pleaded being forced to join their countrymen; and certainly a great share of their misfortunes must be laid to the charge of the French at Canada and Cape Breton. But again, their accusers were their judges, and they were visited with punishment, the severity of which can never be defended.

The ardent attachment which they cherished for Nova Scotia during their exile is forcibly and feelingly expressed by them, in the language of their petition to his Majesty George the Second. After stating their conscientious scruples as to the oath required of them; and their being forcibly carried away from the province to uncongenial climates, this memorial concludes:—

“ Thus we, our ancient parents and grand-parents (men of great integrity and approved fidelity to your Majesty), and our innocent wives and children, became the unhappy victims to those groundless fears; we were transported into the English colonies, and

* History of the East and West Indies, by the Abbé Raynal, vol. v. p. 312., et seq.

this was done in so much haste, and with so little regard to our necessities and the tenderest ties of nature, that, from the most social enjoyments and affluent circumstances, many found themselves destitute of the necessities of life; parents were separated from children, and husbands from wives, some of whom have not to this day met again; and we were so crowded in the transport vessels, that we had not room even for all our bodies to lay down at once, and consequently were prevented from carrying with us proper necessities, especially for the support and comfort of the aged and weak, many of whom quickly ended their misery with their lives; and even those amongst us who had suffered deeply from your Majesty's enemies, on account of their attachment to your Majesty's government, were equally involved in the common calamity, of which René Leblanc, the notary-public before mentioned, is a remarkable instance: he was seized, confined, and brought away among the rest of the people, and his family, consisting of twenty children, and about one hundred and fifty grand-children, were scattered in different colonies, so that he was put on shore at New York, with only his wife and two youngest children, in an infirm state of health, from whence he joined three more of his children at Philadelphia, where he died without any more notice being taken of him than of us, notwithstanding his many years' labour and deep sufferings for your Majesty's service.

"The miseries we have since endured are scarce sufficiently to be expressed, being reduced, for a livelihood, to toil and hard labour, in a southern clime, so disagreeable to our constitutions, that most of us have been prevented by sickness from procuring the

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necessary subsistence for our families ; and are therefore threatened with that which we esteem the greatest aggravation of all our sufferings, even of having our children forced from us, and bound out to strangers, and exposed to contagious distempers unknown in our native country.

“ This, compared with the affluence and ease we enjoyed, shows our condition to be extremely wretched. We have already seen, in this province of Pennsylvania, two hundred and fifty of our people, which is more than half the number that were landed here, perish through misery and various diseases. In this great distress and misery, we have, under God, none but your Majesty to look to with hopes of relief and redress. We therefore hereby implore your gracious protection, and request you may be pleased to let the justice of our complaints be truly and impartially enquired into, and that your Majesty would please to grant us such relief as in your justice and clemency you will think our case requires, and we shall hold ourselves bound to pray, &c.”

This petition was disregarded, and the Acadians were allowed to pine, and many of them to die, in the southern colonies. Those who were afterwards allowed to return settled where they best could, as the lands they previously possessed were occupied by others ; and the Acadians are now to be found (as before mentioned) in Nova Scotia, New Brunswick, Prince Edward Island, Cape Breton, and the district of Gaspè, always by themselves in distinct villages. They still continue averse to settling among other people ; and I have not been able to discover more than four instances of their intermarrying with strangers. They profess the Roman Catholic faith, and

observe the most rigid adherence to all the forms of their church. On Sunday, we observe a decorum and simplicity in the appearance of the Acadians, men, women, and children, that remind us of what we read of the amiable manners of primitive ages. Their general character is virtuous, honest, and inoffensive. Religiously tenacious of their dress, and all the habits of their forefathers, they have no ambition to rise in the world above the condition in which they have lived since their first settling in America. The dread of being exposed to the derision of the rest, for attempting to imitate the English inhabitants, and the want of an education that would conquer prejudices, are the principal causes that prevent individuals among them, who would willingly alter their dress and habits, from doing so.

In Nova Scotia, Prince Edward Island, Richibucto, Magdalene Islands, and the River St. John, the Acadian women dress nearly in the same way as the Bavarian broom girls, with small neat calico caps, and sometimes a *coiffe* or handkerchief tied over the head. Their petticoats of woollen stuff are liberally formed as to breadth, striped red, white, and blue, thickly plaited in large folds at the waist, but they seldom reach within six inches of the ankle: they usually wear blue stockings. On Sunday, their clothes and linen look extremely clean and neat; and they wear over their shoulders a small blue cloth cloak, reaching only half-way down the body, and generally fastened at the breast with a brass brooch. On week days, they are more carelessly dressed, and they usually wear *sabots* (wooden shoes). The men dress in round blue jackets, with straight collars, and metal buttons set close together; blue or scarlet waistcoats,

and blue trowsers, with sometimes the *bonnet rouge*, but generally round hats. Among all the Acadians in Prince Edward Island, I never knew but one person who had the hardihood to dress differently from what they call "notre façon." On one occasion, he ventured to put on an English-made coat, and he has never since, even among his relations, been called by his proper name, Joseph Gallant, which has been supplanted by that of "Joe Peacock."

At Arichat, the Acadians, both men and women, sometimes depart in their dress from the fashions of the Acadians, and wear coats and gowns made in the English fashion.

At Caraquette, I observed also a partial deviation from their usual dress; some of the men wearing coats, and a few of the women wearing gowns. The head-dress of the women on the south side of the Bay de Chaleur is, I believe, peculiar to themselves. Instead of the Bavarian-like small caps worn by all the other Acadians, they delight in immense muslin caps, in shape like a balloon.

The women are always industrious; and in the fishing settlements they are perfect drudges. The men, after splitting the fish, leave the whole labour of curing to the women, who have also to cook, nurse their children, plant their gardens, gather what little corn they raise, and spin and weave coarse cloth. The old worn clothes they either cut into small strips, and weave into coarse bed-covers, or they untwist the threads into wool, which they again spin and make into cloth.

The occupations of the Acadians depend much upon their local situation. In Arichat, Magdalene Islands, Rustico, Tracad, the Bay de Chaleur, and

some other places, where they principally follow fishing, they are not in such easy circumstances as at Clare, Cumberland, and some villages in Prince Edward Island, where they chiefly depend on agriculture. Wherever we discover the Acadians depending on the cultivation of their lands, we find them nearly approaching the condition of their ancestors, as described by Raynal. They marry very young, five to thirty couple at one time in the same chapel, are very affectionate to their children, and the husband seldom makes a bargain or enters on any project without first consulting his *femme*. Domestic virtue they may lay an eminent claim to. One instance in a thousand cannot probably be discovered of a child being born out of wedlock. They have large families, and their children, when young, are fat and chubby, but few are so when they grow up.

The Acadians are nearly destitute of education; scarcely any of the women, and few of the men, can read or write; and, like all ignorant people, it matters not of what religion, they are exceedingly bigoted and superstitious.*

* The following anecdote was related to me by different persons in Prince Edward Island:—At St. Eleanor's, Colonel Compton, to whom the township of St. Eleanor belongs, lived about thirty years ago. Near his house is a small river, the entrance of which opens early in the spring, at which time it is usually frequented by flocks of wild-geese. St. Eleanor's was then populously settled with Acadian French: and during the residence of Colonel Compton, one of the inhabitants (Louis Gallant) died without the usual consolatory attendance of a clergyman, there being but one priest at the time on the island, who lived about seventy miles distant, and who could not, it appears, come in time to hear the confession of the dying man. Louis, it seems, was one of those Acadians who did not surrender when the island was taken; and while lurking about in the woods, he found two Englishmen sleeping during the summer

Most of the men understand English, but French is, and will long continue to be, their language. It is more corrupted than among the Canadians; but they perfectly understand French as spoken in France. Dancing, fiddling, and feasting, at Christmas, on Mardi-Gras, before Lent, and feasting at or after Easter, are their principal sources of amusement or indulgence.

heat, under the shade of a tree. Louis, considering them his natural enemies, as well as the conquerors of his country, felt no scruple in killing them with his hatchet. The murder, however, made Louis miserable, and his conscience was a most troublesome one to him as long as he lived, although his dying hour only developed the mysterious cause of his misery. A little after his death, a solitary wild-goose made its appearance in the opening of the ice at the mouth of the river, near the village of St. Eleanor's. The young men, who were all considered such good shots as to be able to hit a goose at a hundred yards' distance with a musket-ball, fired frequently but ineffectually at this one, which they at last began to think invulnerable. At this time there was on a visit at Colonel Compton's an Irish officer belonging to the troops stationed at Charlotte Town. He had with him an excellent double-barrelled gun, and the Acadians beseeched him to try its virtues by shooting the wonderful goose. He accompanied them, crept within shot of the object, and being (although a Catholic himself) amused at their superstitious fears, he at the moment he was apparently going to fire, started up as if in great terror, and told the Acadians that no one must attempt firing again at what they took for a wild-goose, that his gun possessed the peculiar and wonderful property, when he aimed with it at a supernatural object, of exhibiting it to him in its proper form, and that what they had vainly attempted to shoot, was the ghost of Louis, who would doubtless haunt St. Eleanor's until a clergyman was sent for to deliver his soul from the pains of purgatory. A deputation of young men was immediately despatched for the priest, the goose disappeared, and the good Acadians rejoiced in having performed a religious duty, which the felicity of their lost friend rendered necessary.

They labour under the impression that justice is not, under the British government, administered impartially to them in the courts of law ; and this has arisen perhaps entirely from the conduct of the justices of the peace, many of whom, appointed in the settlements, are stupid, ignorant men ; and I regret to say, that I have often known them to make iniquitous and unjust decisions against the Acadians.

The descendants of the French, settled on the north side of the Bay de Chaleur, are mostly Acadians ; but, from their intimate intercourse with Quebec and the Canadians, are a more intelligent people than the other Acadians, whom they, as well as the Canadians, denominate " *Les Sauvages*." This appellation is owing to some of the Acadians having, in consequence of their ancestors marrying Indian women, the indication of Micmac blood apparent in their countenances. The Acadians have swarthy complexions, seldom fair hair, are generally well made, but the men are very rarely inclined to corpulency. The women are usually under the middle stature, with thick waists and ungainly figures. The features of their faces are, however, generally regular, with fine eyes and expressive countenances.

CHAP. XVI.

NEGROES FROM THE UNITED STATES. — SIERRA LEONE COMPANY. — FATAL CONSEQUENCES OF REMOVING THE NEGROES FROM NOVA SCOTIA TO AFRICA. — MAROONS SENT FROM JAMAICA TO HALIFAX. — REMOVED ALSO TO AFRICA. — CHESAPEAKE NEGROES SETTLED AT HAMMOND PLAINS AND PRESCOT. — WRETCHED CONDITION.

THE negro slaves who were brought to the province from the United States at different times were, whenever they chose, liberated ; and after the American Revolution, some hundreds of freed negroes emigrated to Nova Scotia. The mistaken philanthropy of the Sierra Leone Company caused the removal of eleven hundred and ninety-six of these people, in 1792, at extraordinary expense, in sixteen vessels, to Africa ; sixty-five of them died during the voyage, and many of the remainder became victims to a climate not congenial to them, although it was naturally so to their ancestors. The rest became turbulent and ungovernable.

Some time after, three ships, with the rebellious Maroons of Jamacia, arrived at Halifax. Great but unsuccessful efforts were made to settle these people in the province. For some time their labour at the fortifications, and their obedience to authority, while well fed and clothed, occasioned them to be considered rather an acquisition than a burden to the colony. They were afterwards enrolled as a militia

corps, and, in a warm climate, would have made good soldiers, as they were passionately fond of arms. It was also attempted to convert them to religion, in which, however, there does not appear to have been the least progress made; a plurality of wives, or rather women, and the African burial ceremonies, they declared they would never abandon; and, in short, they only listened to the ministers of religion with contumely.

Two or three hard winters, however, produced sulky discontent among them, and they evinced a determined reluctance to work for themselves. Although they were housed and fed without working, and allowed to indulge themselves in their accustomed sensuality and card-playing, the spring only brought about fresh murmurs and complaints, alleging that the various engagements intimated to them on leaving Jamacia were disregarded; and after costing the island of Jamaica 47,000*l.*, and the British Government 10,000*l.*, annually, for some years, they were, in 1800, also removed to Sierra Leone.

The folly of making Nova Scotia a rendezvous for freed negroes was not yet, however, completed. While a British squadron was blockading the American coast in 1815, some hundreds of negroes fled from their masters, and were received by the English admiral, who sent them to Halifax. These people became idle vagrants, rather than stationary settlers. Although lands were laid out for them, and tools, implements of husbandry, and rations, were provided for them during winter by government, they became sulky and discontented. They thought that to be free, meant to be idle; in fact, to live without working. A few of them stole off to the United States; ninety

of them were removed at the public expense to Trinidad ; and, as if nothing else were wanting to crown the folly of this most absurd philanthropy, one million,—I believe the sum is correct, but I speak from memory, —was granted to the United States as a compensation for these negroes. The Americans themselves sneer at this ultra stretch of English generosity, and it has actually gone a great way to strengthen the common impression among them, that there is nothing too unreasonable to ask of, or with which to gull honest, credulous, kind-hearted John Bull.

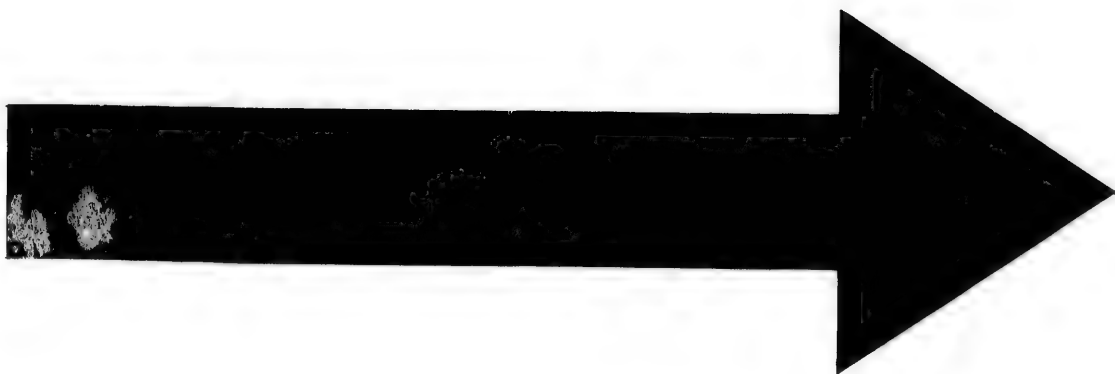
Slavery does not exist in Nova Scotia, and the number of freed negroes may be equal to three thousand. Of these, part came originally from the West India Islands ; others are the residue of those from the United States ; and the remainder were born in the province. A settlement was laid out for them at Hammond Plains, and another at Prescot, both in the neighbourhood of Halifax, and every facility afforded them by the provincial government ; yet they are still in a state of miserable poverty, while Europeans, who have settled on woodlands, under circumstances scarcely so favourable, thrive with few exceptions. There are at Halifax, and in most of the country settlements, several negroes who live as domestic servants among the inhabitants, and in this condition they are generally industrious, obedient, and well provided with food and clothing. We find them also on board the ships as sailors, but more frequently as stewards and cooks. There are not, probably, ten exceptions to be found among all the negroes in the province who are their own masters, that are not indolent, improvident, miserable, and ragged. They gather wild fruits in summer, which

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they sell in the Halifax market, and in winter they bring in brooms, which they dispose of for rum, and what food they can get. They seem inclined indeed to do any thing, and even meet starvation in the face, rather than cultivate the ground with patient industry. They think the returns for their labour too slow, too distant to wait for until the seed they sow produce a crop. Whether their wretchedness may be attributed to servitude, or degradation having extinguished in them the spirit that endures present difficulties and privations, in order to attain future advantages; or to the consciousness that they are an unimportant and distinct race; or, more properly, to the fact, that they find it more congenial to their habits to serve others, either as domestic servants or labourers, by which they make sure of the wants of the day—certain it is that they prefer servitude, and always live more comfortably in that condition than they do when working on their own account.

Thirteen years after they were settled at Hammond Plains, I had the opportunity of knowing their condition. It was wretched in the extreme: the grown up and the aged in rags, and the children nearly naked. Their habitations, destitute of furniture or common necessities, were also unfit to defend them from the inclemency of winter. To a man unacquainted with our possessions abroad, it might be difficult to account for the poverty-stricken and unhappy condition of these unfortunate beings. To me the causes of their penury and misery were distinct and evident. The surrounding lands, although originally of not better, and in some cases of not equally good quality to that occupied by the negroes, were cultivated by emigrants, who arrived in the colony



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from time to time, with nothing but their industry to acquire the means of living. They received no public assistance, and they had all to pay some pounds before they secured titles to the lands on which they settled; yet I found these people, with very few exceptions, in comfortable circumstances, with their houses commodious and conveniently furnished, their farms well cultivated, themselves and their families well clothed, their tables well supplied with excellent food, their moral character correct, their attention to public worship regular, and the instruction of their offspring attended to. What then has secured to them all these blessings? Neither more nor less than persevering industry and good management.

Then to what are we to attribute the penury and the misery of the freed negroes of Nova Scotia, to whom the legislature have yearly afforded assistance, and to whom the blessings of religion and the benefits of education have been as fully extended as to the other inhabitants of the province? To no cause but the absence of steady well-directed industry, and judicious management.

We then come to enquire, how does it arise that the freed negroes are an indolent, improvident class of men? To account for this fact, we have only to reflect that man, in order to husband and manage the fruits of his labour, as well as to regulate his moral conduct, must be trained from infancy by example and education, so as to render such a course of life natural and desirable to him; and by which means alone will he be prepared in due season to act prudently or wisely on his own responsibility.

The previous life of a negro is so very different

from that of Europeans, that even when in Africa, in his freest state, it would require the operations of useful and liberal instruction for more than one generation, to adapt him for acting, according to his own free will, with the steady industry, good management, and discretion, necessary to render his condition equally happy with that of the husbandmen and artisans of Europe, or of their descendants settled in America.

It is far from my wish, in making these observations, to inculcate the revolting doctrine, that slavery is the most happy condition in which negroes can live; but all my observations, in our colonies, have led me to conclude, unbiassed by prejudice or by interest, that the attempts hitherto made to render the freed negroes more happy or more virtuous than they were as slaves, have been unsuccessful; and that unless the West India negroes be gradually prepared for personal liberty, they will, on obtaining their freedom, become objects of much greater commiseration than they now are in a state of bondage; and the history and present condition of the freed negroes of Nova Scotia fully substantiate these assertions.

CHAP. XVII.

CAPE BRETON.

GEOGRAPHICAL SITUATION.—CONFIGURATION AND GENERAL DESCRIPTION.—SKETCH OF ITS HISTORY.

CAPE BRETON, now forming part of the province of Nova Scotia, is bounded on the south and east by the Atlantic Ocean, and on the north and north-west by the Gulf of St. Lawrence. The Strait of Canseau separates it on the west from Nova Scotia, and forms also a deep and safe passage into the gulf; to which, however, the principal entrance, 57 miles in width, is between Cape Ray, in Newfoundland, and the north cape of Cape Breton.

The aspect of Cape Breton is romantic and mountainous. The coast, washed by the Gulf of St. Lawrence, is of dangerous access, without harbours, and its high iron-faced cliffs are in many places perpendicular. On the Atlantic, the shores are broken and rugged, but indented with numerous harbours and bays. A vast inlet, named the Bras d'Or, entering by two narrow passages, and afterwards spreading into numerous bays and arms, nearly divides the island into two.

Woods, with the exceptions of small patches cleared for cultivation, and such spots as are thrown open where rocks occupy the surface, cover the whole island. The trees are of much the same kind and

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description as those already described*, unless it be on the sea-coast and mountains, in which situations they are of a dwarfish character.

It is usually conjectured that this island has been detached from the continent of America by some violent convulsion. This, like most speculative opinions for which we have no historical data, must ever remain uncertain. The Strait of Canseau is not; for a distance of five leagues, more than a mile and a half wide, and in some places less. The Highlands also, rising on each side rather abruptly, make the width of the strait to seem much less, and impart to it, at the same time, the appearance of an immense fissure, laid open by the explosion of some tremendous agency.

There is not, however, a striking resemblance in the geological structure of the opposite shores of Cape Breton and Nova Scotia; but this is no uncommon circumstance in nature; and we often, in America, meet with a chain of granite predominating on one side of a river, and a calcareous region prevailing on the other.

The geology and mineralogy of Cape Breton can only be said to be known in outline. From all that I have observed, however, and from all the information I have been able to obtain, I may remark, that almost all the rocks named in the discordant nomenclature of Werner, are found in this island.

Among the primitive rocks, granite prevails in the peninsular country south-east of the Bras d'Or; and it probably forms the nucleus of the Highlands between this inlet and the Gulf of St. Lawrence. Sienite,

* See Book II.

trap, mica, clay-slate, and occasionally quartz, also appear on the gulf coast.

Primitive trap, sienite, mica-slate, and clay-slate, show themselves, together with transition limestone, greywacke, gypsum, and coal, generally in all parts of the island.

The class of floetz rocks appears, however, to be the most numerous; and coal exists in such abundance, that persons unacquainted with geology have stated seriously to me that they considered this mineral formed the base of the whole island. Coal, in a field, or fields, of vast extent, abounds in the south-eastern division of the island, surrounded by carboniferous limestone, new red sandstone, &c. The quality of this coal is excellently adapted for common fire-places.

The extent or quality of the coal fields north of the Bras d'Or, have not been ascertained. Gypsum occurs in great plenty along the shores of the Bras d'Or, at the Gut of Canseau, on the gulf coast, and in some other parts of the island.

We may conclude, from the strongly saturated salt springs which are found in different places, that the rock-salt formation is extensive. Iron ore, in various forms, iron pyrites, red ochre, &c., exist in great abundance. Pieces of copper ore, lead, &c. have also been found, and various other minerals will probably be discovered.

The varieties of fish which abound in the seas surrounding Cape Breton are of the same kind as those already described, as are also the birds and wild animals.* The latter are the moose-deer, cariboo,

* Mr. Haliburton states, that "remains of vast animals are found, which, it would appear, formerly ranged in the vicinity of the Bras

bear, beaver, loup-cervier, fox, hare, marten, otter, musquash, mink, squirrel, racoon, porcupine, and weasel.

Moose-deer have now become scarce, in consequence of the vast number slaughtered at one time by the English, merely for the sake of their skins. Cariboo deer are still plentiful, and pursued principally by the Indians. Various kinds of wild fowl, foxes, and hares, are numerous, and afford abundant sport.

Salmon, and remarkably large trout, are plentiful in the rivers; and there are few countries that offer greater temptations to the followers of honest Izaak Walton.

The soil in many places is thin, rocky, and unfit for cultivation; in others wet, and inclining to the character of mossy bogs. In the interior, on the borders of the Bras d'Or Lake and its inlets, and along the numerous streams that rise in the mountains, and which wind through the country to the sea, there are extensive tracts of excellent land; and, on the north-west coast, also in the valleys, and along the small rivers, low lands with deep and rich soils prevail.

The land fit for profitable cultivation on the island may be considered about 500,000 acres, a great part of which is alluvial. The whole of the lands afford good pasturage, and great numbers of black cattle and sheep might be reared. From the humidity of the climate, especially on the Atlantic coast, wheat is

d'Or. Enormous bones, resembling thigh-bones, six feet in length, are reported to have been seen lying at the bottom of the lake."

liable, in ripening, to casual failures, which would not likely occur if the country were extensively opened, by clearing away the woods, as cultivation and exposure to the sun would dry up the ground more readily, and early frosts would not be so frequent. Barley, buck-wheat, potatoes, and all culinary vegetables may be raised in abundance ; and I believe hemp and flax would succeed here as well as in Russia or Canada.

The climate of Cape Breton differs from that of Prince Edward Island, in its being subject, particularly on the Atlantic coast, to fogs ; and, in the inland parts, to a more humid atmosphere, which may be accounted for by its geographical position, and the interior abounding with lakes and arms of the sea ; while the soil, owing to its stiffness, does not so readily absorb the rain, nor the water which remains on the ground after the snow melts. Fogs are not, however, frequent in the interior, or within the Bras d'Or, and a clear sky is generally visible, even when fogs prevail, which seldom rise high from the surface of the land or sea.

The bays and rivers which open to the Atlantic are not so long frozen over as those within the gulf : the difference at the beginning and termination of winter, may be considered at each period from fifteen to twenty days. On the Atlantic coast of Cape Breton, wet weather prevails much more during the year than in Prince Edward Island or Canada. The climate, however, is salubrious ; and, while unhealthy subjects are exceedingly rare, instances of longevity from ninety to one hundred years are common.

It has been said that Cape Breton obtained its name from the first discoverers being natives of

Britany; but this is not true, as it was first discovered by Cabot, and afterwards by Verazani, who named it *Ile du Cap*. The name of Cape Breton was at first given to its most easterly point, which projects into the sea between Louisburg and Scatari, and afterwards extended to the whole island. In 1718, it was called by the French *Ile Royale*; but it remained unplanted until 1714, when the French of Newfoundland and Acadia made some settlements on it near the shore, where each person built according to his fancy, as he found ground convenient for drying cod-fish, and for small gardens.

In 1715, Louis XIV., after having been long contending with the united powers of Europe, made an offer to Queen Anne of part of the French possessions in North America, in order to detach Great Britain from that formidable alliance; and, by the treaty of Utrecht, the British became possessed of Newfoundland, Hudson Bay, and Acadia (*Nova Scotia*). In short, all France could do was to preserve Canada, the islands of Cape Breton and St. John (Prince Edward).

Cape Breton had, before this time, been considered altogether unfit for making any settlement on. In summer time, it was frequented by a few fishermen; and during winter, the inhabitants of Acadia resorted thither for the purpose of trading for furs with the Indians.

But the French, in order partly to repair the loss they sustained, — as it was of the utmost consequence not to be entirely driven out of the cod-fishing, — and also to preserve a post that would enable them to command the mouth of the River St. Lawrence, by which a communication was kept open with

Canada, were, by such solid considerations, induced to colonise Cape Breton, and to build the town and fortify the harbour of Louisburg.

The Seneglay, a French ship-of-war, commanded by M. de Contreville, arrived at Louisburg on the 13th August, 1713, and took possession of it, but it was not fortified until 1720. It was taken by the British forces from New England, in 1745, at which time they built a fort at Indian Bay, where they discovered coal, and opened a pit. The command of these forces, amounting to 4000, was given to William Pepperal*, a colonel of militia, but brought up to trade, and extensively engaged in commerce. His affability, and the excellence of his character made him very popular among these volunteer troops.

There was something of the spirit of the crusades in this expedition. The famous Mr. Whitfield supplied them with the motto, "Nil desperandum Christo duce," for their banner; and the military feeling of these forces was probably excited as much by fanaticism as by love of country.

Commodore Warren, after some delay, joined the transports from New England; and after a siege of forty-nine days, during which the provincials distinguished themselves by their endurance and bravery, Louisburg surrendered on the 18th of June. Commodore Warren, a few days before, captured the Vigilant of 74 guns, commanded by the Marquis de la Maison Forte, with a great supply of stores; and some time after two French East India ships and a South Sea ship, valued at 600,000*l.*, were decoyed into Louisburg, by hoisting the French flag in the usual place.

* Afterwards created a baronet.

St. John's Island fell into the possession of England a little after; and the inhabitants were transported to France. Some English, on that occasion, ventured incautiously into the country, where they were surprised by the Indians, and twenty-eight were either massacred or made prisoners.

The stores, merchandise, fish, &c. taken in Louisburg, were of immense value; and the importance of this place to France, as a rendezvous for its West and East India fleets, and as the head quarters of their fisheries, was of vast consequence. Privateers were also fitted out here to disturb our fisheries, and to infest our colonial coasts. The Micmac Indians resorted to it with the scalps of the English who became the victims of their cruelty; and although the French pretended to consider them an independent people, they countenanced, even during peace, the aggressions of the savages on the English.

Cape Breton was restored to France by the treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle, in return for Madras, and remained in possession of that power until the surrender of Louisburg, on the 26th of July, 1758, to the British forces under the command of General Amherst and Brigadier-Generals Lawrence and Wolfe, and the fleet commanded by Admiral Boscawen.

The French, commanded by M. de Drucourt, defended Louisburg, from the 8th July until its capitulation, with extraordinary bravery, against a powerful fleet, consisting of twenty-three ships of the line, eighteen frigates, with sloops of war and transports, amounting to one hundred and fifty-seven ships, and against 16,000 land forces. On this occasion, Madame de Drucourt behaved with great heroism, appearing daily on the ramparts, animating the soldiers

in the unceasing duty which the defence of the place demanded.

The merchants, and the greater part of the inhabitants of Louisburg, were, after its capture, sent to France in English vessels. But the officers of government, the military and naval officers, soldiers, marines and sailors, in number 5720, were transported as prisoners of war to England. The stores and ammunition, besides 227 pieces of artillery, found in Louisburg, were of great value.

The following description of the then metropolis of Cape Breton, was written by a gentleman who was residing in Louisburg during the siege.* "The French began to fortify this town in 1720. It is built on a neck of land which juts out into the sea, south-east of the island. It is of an oblong figure, and nearly a league in circumference. The streets are wide and regular; and near the principal fort and citadel, there is a handsome parade. To the north of the town there are three gates, and a spacious quay. They have likewise constructed a kind of bridges, called in French *calles*, (wharfs,) which project considerably into the sea, and are extremely convenient for loading and unloading goods.

"The fortifications consist of two bastions, called the King's and Queen's, and two demi-bastions, distinguished by the names of Dauphin and Princess. These two out-works are commanded by several eminences. The houses are almost all of wood; the stone ones have been built at the king's expense, and

* Genuine Letters and Memoirs relating to the Natural, Civil, and Commercial History of the Islands of Cape Breton and St. John, by an impartial Frenchman. English translation. London, 1761.

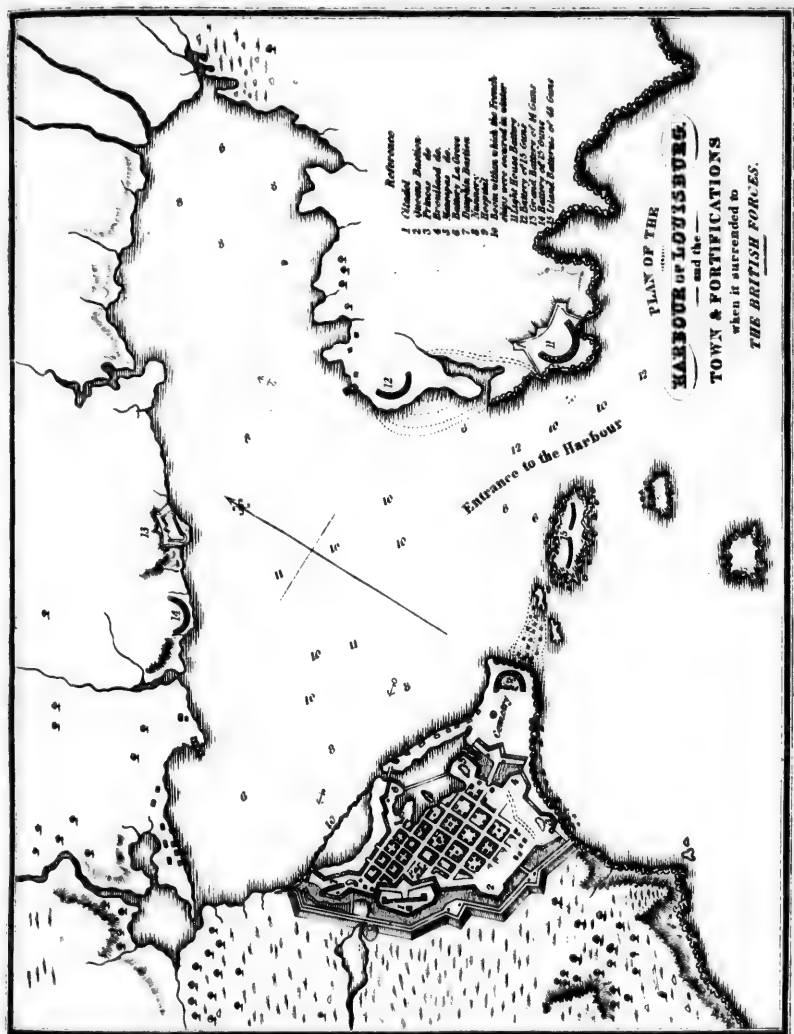
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are designed for the accommodation of the troops and officers. When the English were masters of the town, in 1745, they built very considerable caserns. The French transplanted the materials of their stone buildings, as well as their other works, from Europe.

“ There is hardly a settlement that has been attended with more expense to the French nation than this of Louisburg. It is certain that they have laid out above thirty millions of livres ; and so cogent were the motives which induced them to put this scheme into execution, that the preservation of Louisburg will always be considered as an object of too great importance not to sacrifice every thing to it. Cape Breton protects the whole French trade of North America, and is of equal consequence in regard to their commerce in the West Indies. If they had no settlement in this part of North America, their vessels returning from St. Domingo or Martinique, would no longer be safe on the great bank of Newfoundland, particularly in time of war ; lastly, as it is situated at the entrance of the Gulf of St. Lawrence, it absolutely commands the river of that name.

“ The entrance of the harbour of Louisburg is defended by a battery, level with the surface of the water. It is planted opposite the light-house, on the other side of the grande-tene, and consists of thirty-six pieces of cannon, all of them four-and-twenty pounders. The harbour is also defended by a cavalier, called by the name of Maurepas, which has twelve embrasures. The royal battery, situated at the distance of a quarter of a league from the town, is mounted with thirty pieces of cannon, twenty-eight of which are thirty-six pounders, and two are eighteen

pounders. It commands the sea, the town, and the bottom of the bay. The port of Louisburg is at least a league in length, and upwards of a quarter of a league in its smallest breadth. There is very good holding-ground, and generally from six to ten fathoms water. They have a very safe and convenient place to careen their ships, where they may also be laid up in winter, only taking proper precautions against the ice."

The island battery, not mentioned in the above description, commanding the harbour, mounted thirty guns, and some other batteries were also planted before the siege. The town was surrounded, with the exception of about two hundred yards of the sea of most difficult access, by a broad stone rampart, thirty feet high, and a wide ditch. An extensive marshy bog in rear, rendered the approach by land both difficult and dangerous.

The population of Louisburg at this time, exclusive of the troops, was about 5000. The administration was lodged in a governor and supreme council. There was also a bailiwick, or court of law, and a court of admiralty. It had an hospital for invalid soldiers and sailors, "which was served by six brothers of the charitable fraternity, of whose conduct, as well as that of the Recollet friars, and other spiritual directors in Cape Breton, complaints were frequently made by the French inhabitants, and by the English of Nova Scotia, who charged them with the direction of the atrocities committed by the Indians." The nuns of Louisburg called themselves of the community of Quebec; their province was to superintend the education of young girls. There were two handsome churches in the town, one of

which was within the citadel; and several other public buildings.

The British government, fearing that Louisburg might again fall into the power of the French, ordered the town and fortifications to be demolished; and it has ever since remained in ruins, notwithstanding its excellent harbour, and the extraordinary importance attached at the time to its conquest.

During the period that France held the colony, the inhabitants were chiefly engaged in the fisheries. In this trade were employed near 600 vessels, exclusive of boats, and between 27,000 and 28,000 seamen; and the French ministry considered this fishery a more valuable source of wealth and power to France than the possession of the mines of Mexico and Peru would be. The principal settlements at that time were within the Bras d'Or, at Port Dauphin (St. Ann's), Spanish Bay (now Sydney), Port Toulouse (St. Peter's), Arichat, Petit de Grat, and River Inhabitants.

Cape Breton, after its conquest, remained neglected: England thinking it unworthy of settlement, and only fearful that it might again be taken possession of by France. Twenty years had elapsed, and no progress had been made of any consequence towards colonising it. A few fishermen, who planted themselves at some of the harbours, and whose existence was scarcely known, formed its only inhabitants. During this time, it was an appendage to the government of Nova Scotia.

Soon after the peace which followed the American revolutionary war, Cape Breton was separated from the jurisdiction of Nova Scotia, and its administration vested in Lieutenant-Governor Desbarres, and an

executive council. Sydney was laid out and built for the metropolis, and a garrison was stationed there under the command of a captain or subaltern officer. With the exception of Governor Desbarres, who founded Sydney, the different rulers were said to consider it wiser policy to make their power more subservient to their own particular views, than to the improvement and settlement of the colony. It was re-annexed, in 1820, as a county, sending two members to represent it in general assembly, to the province of Nova Scotia.

General Kempt, previously to his promotion to the chief command in America, directed much of his attention to the improvement of Cape Breton. Roads have been traced, or opened, to facilitate the intercourse between the settlements; the location of lands placed under regulations which give ready possession to new settlers; and all that could be effected by the provincial government has been extended to this island. Its settlement by the English could scarcely be said to have commenced until after the American revolution, when several families of loyalists removed to Cape Breton. Emigration from the highlands and islands of Scotland, which commenced in 1800, has continued from that period to add some hundreds annually to the population. During the summer of 1832, several ships arrived, at various ports in Cape Breton, with emigrants, principally families who have followed their relatives from the highlands and isles of Scotland.

Cape Breton is still, however, much less improved, and has a smaller population, in proportion to its superficies, with the exception of Newfoundland and Labrador, than any of the British North American

colonies. When the mighty importance attached to it by France, the abundant fisheries on its coasts, its numerous harbours, and its producing plenty of wood for building vessels and boats, and also a soil capable of producing grain, vegetables, and excellent grazing, together with its coal mines, are taken into consideration, it appears difficult to account for this colony having been so long neglected, while the attention of government has been directed to the colonisation of countries so distant as the Cape of Good Hope and Van Diemen's Land, otherwise than by supposing that the advantages and resources of British America have been imperfectly understood, not only by government, but by individuals desirous to emigrate.

CHAP. XVIII.

DESCRIPTION OF SYDNEY AND OTHER PRINCIPAL SETTLEMENTS,
ETC. ETC.

SYDNEY, which is the metropolis, or county town, of Cape Breton, and lately constituted a free port, was founded by Governor Desbarres. It is situated a few miles south of the entrance to Bras d'Or, on a point of land lying between a small river which branches to the south, and the larger continuation of Dartmouth river; and about two miles above the junction of the latter river with the west arm of Sydney, or Spanish Bay. It was, previously to the reannexion of Cape Breton to Nova Scotia, the residence of the lieutenant-governors. Its situation is very beautiful, having a steep bank, with deep water on the west, from which the site of the town descends gently to the east. The surrounding scenery, presenting woods, water, cultivated land, and some other picturesque features, is interesting and pretty, but not romantic; the town is regularly planned, contains from sixty to seventy houses, rather handsomely built, with gardens attached, and a population of about five hundred.

The government buildings are the barracks, stores, and government-house, at the north end of the town. There is a court-house, market, church, a Dissenting and Catholic chapel. The courts for the county and

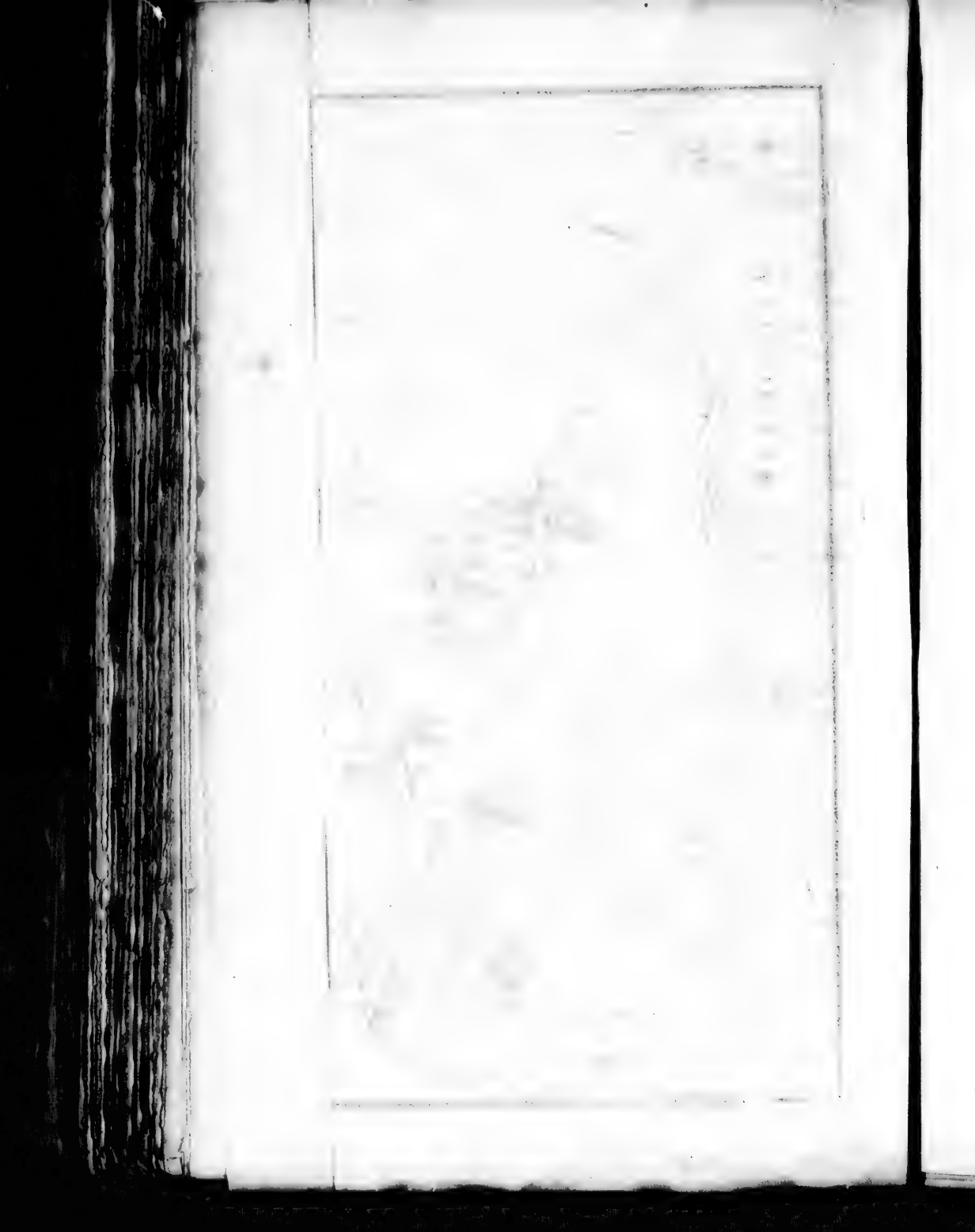
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district are held at Sydney; causes are decided according to the laws of England, and the provincial statutes of Nova Scotia. A captain or subaltern officer, with a detachment of from thirty to forty soldiers, are stationed here for protecting the town.

The harbour of Sydney has a bar at its entrance, but there is sufficiently deep water over it for the largest ships, and there is abundant room and good anchorage at Dartmouth river on the west side of the town, and at the West Arm, near North Sydney.

Few places have improved or prospered less than Sydney since it was first built, although it possesses many advantages. It is conveniently situated for the fisheries, and the adjacent lands are adapted for agriculture and grazing. Timber, suitable for building houses and fishing-craft, is abundant; and the coal mines in its immediate neighbourhood are another eminent advantage.

The coal trade has been the chief business carried on here; the mines, however, on the north side of the bay, and without the bar, are very inconvenient for shipping; and the mode of drawing them from the mines, and conveying them on shipboard, has hitherto been tedious and awkward. Proper machinery will, no doubt, be immediately used; and some safe plan to protect the vessels from the sea, adopted by the "General Mining Company," who now possess the mines, and who have also opened a coal mine at Lingan Bay, some miles to the southward.*

* The Company is carrying on these works with spirit; and if it had not plunged too deeply into South American mines, with no success whatever, the coal mines of Cape Breton and Nova-Scotia would, with economical management, yield the share-

The inhabitants around Sydney Bay and rivers are Scotch emigrants, some Irish, disbanded soldiers, and families of American loyalists. At the West Arm there is a settlement of Acadian French.

The coast from Sydney to Louisburg presents abrupt cliffs, low beaches, bays, rivers, and a few islands. The principal places are, Lingan Bay, the harbour of which, now named Budgeport, is shallow; but the Mining Company will likely erect a pier to protect large vessels while loading. The lands are good, and settled principally by Irish. Glace Bay has also a few Irish inhabitants; and at Cow Bay there are some families of American loyalists.

Coal is very abundant along the whole of this coast; and a precipitous cliff, intersected by a thick stratum of that mineral, presents its transformation in many places into cinders, by a fire that continued burning for some years. This story has crept into some of our late geographical works, with the augmentation of the fire not having been extinguished since the English took Louisburg in 1745.

Mirè Bay and River intersect the island for about thirty miles. This bay has only a harbour for very

holders very profitable returns. I fear, however, that the expenses of the South American mines will leave the general state of the Company's affairs not in a very flourishing condition; but as the directors have decided on relinquishing all connection with South America, a country in which they have little security for their investment, I have no doubt that the directors, by adopting and following judicious plans for working the coal mines, will soon place their shares in a valuable position. By late accounts from Pictou (10th January, 1833), the mine there was on fire, kindled, it is supposed, by some malicious incendiary. Fourteen horses, which were below, perished.

small vessels. For a boat, or shore fishery, it is very convenient. The adjoining lands are not generally adapted for agriculture, but afford excellent pasturage. An injudicious grant of 100,000 acres of land has prevented the settlement of the country bordering on this beautiful river; and the population consists only of a few families of American loyalists.

Scatari Island, a point for which vessels bound from Britain to North America have usually shaped their course, lies a few miles south-east of Mirè Bay. It is triangular in shape; its sides about five miles long; and its soil barren, but well calculated for an extensive fishery. It is not inhabited, at least not permanently. Within Scatari is Main à Dieu or Minadon Harbour, at which there is a settlement of industrious fishermen, who, after the cod fishery is over, employ themselves with their vessels in carrying coals from Sydney to Halifax, &c.

Louisburg has, since its demolition, remained so insignificant, that it might be passed over by merely observing that its harbour is safe and spacious; and that it is most conveniently situated on the south side of the island for the fisheries, and a safe rendezvous for naval squadrons.

But it has assumed, and maintains, a classic position in history, that requires more than ordinary notice.

The harbour of Louisburg is in latitude $45^{\circ} 54'$ N., and longitude $59^{\circ} 52'$ W. Its entrance, a little more than a quarter of a mile in width, leads between some small rocky islets, and a bold point on the north-east side, on which stand the ruins of the French light-house, and the foundations of two bat-

teries. A delusive entrance presents itself from the sea between the islands and the western point on which Louisburg stood ; but a rocky ledge, covered with a few feet of water, extends across it, and renders the passage impracticable, while it also defends the harbour most completely against the heavy rolling sea of the Atlantic.

Within, a capacious basin, nearly three miles in length, and about a mile in width, with excellent holding ground, forms one of the best harbours in the world.

A few rivulets run into the harbour, which afford fresh water ; and a beach and some other parts are well adapted for the landing and drying of fish. The surrounding lands are bleak, rugged, and barren, and only a few slight traces remain of what was cultivated by the French. A few dwarfish firs, birches, shrubs, moss, and grass, appear growing among the rocks, and greater fertility is only met with some miles back in the country. In fact, Louisburg has no natural advantage but its fine harbour, its watering-places, and its convenient position for the rendezvous of a navy, and for the fisheries.

The ruins of Louisburg repose on a point of land projecting from the western coast ; against one side of which the roaring surges of the ocean roll and foam, while the other is laved by the calm waters of the harbour ; on both shores, the land, near the sea, is low, and rises gently to the site formerly occupied by the citadel. Stretching across this point, separating the area of Louisburg from a small pond and morass that lie between it and some rocky hills, we discover the walls, sloping glacis, and ruined bastions.

These are, in most places, covered with a turf of

grass and moss; and the wide broken gaps, which were blown open by gunpowder, remind us of the destruction of the once regular and formidable works of defence. The remains of all the batteries, and the foundations of many of the public buildings, the stockades, and, in calm weather, the sunken ships of war, are still to be seen.

The strong and capacious magazines, in which were once deposited vast stores of military combustibles, are still nearly entire, but almost hidden by the accumulation of earth and turf. They now afford warm and safe shelter for the flocks of sheep that feed on the site of Louisburg, and whose tracks lead us to the entrance of the casemates.

Between the site of a battery on the extreme point, and a pond in front of the ruins of Maurepas bastion, may be traced the burying-ground; in which repose the ashes of many a courageous and distinguished French officer, mingled with those of the brave troops and sailors who fell in defending Louisburg against two formidable sieges. Here also have been laid the remains of the priest, friar, and civilian, together with those of the pious nun, fashionable lady, and the humble wife of the fisherman.

On treading over the grounds of Louisburg, that heart must be indeed cold, which does not feel the full force of the observations of Dr. Johnson when surveying the ruins of Iona. We observe in Louisburg the desolation which destiny has entailed on the splendid cities of the ancient world. All is silent, excepting the reverberation of the sea, as the waves roll in along the beach; or the bleating of the scattered sheep, as they gather towards their resting abodes, when the solitude of evening approaches.

A few huts, the habitations of poor unambitious fishermen, form only a melancholy contrast to the superb edifices, regular fortifications, naval grandeur, military pomp, and commercial activity of which Louisburg was once the splendid theatre.

From Louisburg to St. Peter's the coast of Cape Breton is naked and rocky, and the soil only in a few places fit for cultivation, until we arrive at St. Esprit, where the country assumes a more fertile appearance. Gabarus Bay, at which there are a few families of American loyalists, subsisting by fishing, and cultivating some small spots of ground, and three other small harbours, where a few fishermen reside, are the only settlements that intervene.

At St. Esprit and Grand River, the inhabitants are Scottish emigrants. Settlements are also forming on the fertile lands around the lakes that discharge into Grand River. There is at Ardoise, between Cape Hinchinbrooke and St. Peter's, a settlement of Acadian French, who follow the cod and herring fisheries.

St. Peter's Bay, and the whole course of Lennox passage to the Strait of Canseau, exhibits broken indented shores, innumerable coves, harbours, and islands. The population of these places consists chiefly of Acadian French, who follow the fisheries, and cultivate also small patches of land.

St. Peter's Bay and settlement are situated to the east of Lennox Passage. The French called this place Port Toulouse; and to it the Indians of Acadia and Cape Breton brought their furs to exchange for European commodities. The distance across the isthmus, between the head of this bay and the Bras d'Or Lake, is about 900 yards. It was surveyed, under the direction of government, by Mr. Hall, a

civil engineer, from whose report it appears that there would be little difficulty in opening a canal communication between all parts of the Bras d'Or and the Atlantic, through this neck of land. — The estimated expense is 17,150*l*. *

Numberless advantages to Cape Breton would result from the completion of such an undertaking; and St. Peter's would then become the focus of intercourse with all parts of the island.

People going and coming between different places within Bras d'Or, and Nova Scotia and Prince Edward Island, frequently haul their boats with horses or oxen across this portage; and the Indians carry their bark canoes over it on their heads.

At the head of Grand Anse harbour, which branches off from Lennox Passage, there is a Scotch settlement, the inhabitants of which follow agricultural pursuits, and the lands are considered of good quality.

Rivière des Habitans, or, as it is now called, River Inhabitants, along the banks of which there were extensively cultivated farms when Cape Breton was taken, falls into a bay of the same name at the northern end of Lennox Passage. The lands on each side of this river are fertile, and have been settled for many years. The interior lands are also excellent, and covered with luxuriant woods.

Arichat is situated on the south side of Madame Island, which is divided by Lennox Passage from Cape Breton. It lies near the south entrance of the Gut of Canseau, opposite Cranberry Island, on which there is a light-house. Its harbour is safely sheltered,

* See the maps of Sydney and Cape Breton.

and has a sufficient depth of water for the largest ships. The population of this place is increasing fast; the present number of inhabitants may be estimated at two thousand, consisting principally of Acadian French, who are engaged in the fisheries and coasting trade.

It is a port of entry under that of Halifax, and may be considered the most important and thriving place in Cape Breton. The town, or rather long village, with its chapels, court-house, dwelling-houses, stores, wharfs, and fishing-craft, has a pleasing, industrious, and trading appearance. The fishery is here conducted to an important extent; and several cargoes of dry cod and pickled fish are annually exported to Spain, Portugal, to the countries within the Mediterranean, to the West Indies, and to Halifax. The mercantile houses who support this fishery are, with two or three exceptions, managed by people from Guernsey or Jersey.

The island of Madame is about sixteen miles long, and from six to eight broad. Its soil is thin and rocky, yet the inhabitants derive essential advantage from what it produces. There are several small harbours, besides Arichat, along its shores, which afford shelter and convenience to the fishing vessels. A road crosses this island from Arichat to Grand Digne, at which place there is a ferry, less than a mile over, to the mainland, from roads communicating with St. Peter's, Bras d'Or, and River Inhabitants.

The Strait of Canseau, generally spelt Canso, and called by the French the Strait of Fronsac, is a narrow passage which detaches Cape Breton from the continent of America. The channel from the Atlantic to its southern entrance, leads between Cape Canseau

and Green Island, across Chedabucto Bay. Its length from Sandy Point to Cape Jack is about twenty-one miles, and its breadth about a mile. There are several coves and places within it, where ships may anchor with safety, and be sheltered from all winds: of these, Ship Harbour is the best.

The features of the scenery, on each side of this extraordinary strait, are unusually grand and mountainous, and stretch and rise to the utmost extent of romantic boldness. As it is in some respects the most convenient, and, perhaps, the safest passage to and from the Gulf of St. Lawrence, ships, brigs, and a variety of small vessels, under sail, mingle incessantly, during summer and autumn, with the wildness of its picturesque sublimity. The mountains are covered with trees to their summits; rocks jut out from the banks; habitations are scattered near the shores on each side; and the lands have been partially cleared and cultivated. At Ship Harbour, and near Plaster Paris Cove, are two or three fishing plantations, or depôts for salt, fishing-tackle, &c., and stores for receiving dry and pickled fish.

The tides in this strait are so irregular as to baffle all calculation; and, apparently governed by the winds, flow several days in one direction.

The Strait, or, as it is vulgarly called, the Gut of Canseau, possesses eminent advantages for a rallying point of communication with all parts of America. Vessels from Quebec, and all places within the Gulf of St. Lawrence, pass frequently through this strait, on their passage to and from the West Indies, and to and from different parts of North and South America. Ships sailing from Europe for the lower ports in the Gulf, generally prefer the passage of

Canseau; and through it many of the United States' vessels engaged in the fisheries, and those that now go to Pictou for coals, enter and return. A good carriage road might also, at the usual expense, be made from the Nova Scotia side of the strait to Truro, at the head of the Bay of Fundy; from whence roads diverge to Halifax, Pictou, and New Brunswick, which may, from the last place, be continued to Canada. Lastly, the Strait of Canseau is of safe access, and may be approached generally without the apprehension of danger.

The coast of Cape Breton, from the Strait of Canseau to Port Hood, is as densely settled as any part of the island. The houses and farms of the inhabitants are observed from the sea, ascending, in detached openings made in the forest, over each other, to the tops of the hills and mountains. The settlers that line the coast to Marguerite, or Salmon River, are, with the exception of a few royalist families, all Scotch Highlanders, or rather islanders, of the poorer sort, who have secured the means of existence, but who seem indifferent about greater comfort or affluence.

Port Hood, or Justau-Corp Harbour, lies eighteen miles north of the Strait of Canseau, and is formed by an island, and a jutting point of land, which shelter it from all winds. This place is well situated for fishing; and the lands in its neighbourhood are tolerably good, particularly for pasturage.

The harbour is safe, capacious, and admits large ships. The inhabitants employ themselves in agricultural pursuits, and in catching herring, cod, and dog-fish; the latter are very plentiful, and caught for the oil obtained from their livers. They also

send several schooners annually with cattle to the Newfoundland market. Since the time that Cape Breton was divided into districts, the court for the western district has been held at this place. There is a tolerable road from Port Hood to a branch of the Bras d'Or, another along the coast to the Strait of Canseau, and a path, rather than a road, leads to Marguerite.

Mabau River, about six miles from Port Hood, has a harbour for shallops; and the lands abutting this river are cultivated by Scotch and American loyalists.

From Cape Mabau, which is an abrupt and mountainous headland, to Marguerite, the coast assumes the form of a bold mountainous amphitheatre, called by the inhabitants Broad Cove, into which several small streams run. This part of the country is rather populous settled; and the lands, particularly the interval of Broad Cove, produce good crops.

Marguerite River is settled, along its banks, by Acadian French, who might live most comfortably, by applying their labour solely to the cultivation of the beautiful fertile lands that extend along this fine stream, and to the raising of cattle; but they cannot, it would seem, resist the infatuated propensity of the Acadians for fishing, and making coasting voyages with their shallops. Salmon are usually plentiful at Marguerite, and from this circumstance it is frequently called Salmon River.

Cheticamp Harbour is seventeen miles to the northward of Marguerite. The intermediate coast is settled by Acadians. This harbour admits schooners only; and a fishery, carried on by Jersey merchants, has been for many years established in this place. The inhabitants are Acadian French.

Along the iron-bound, precipitous, and dreadful coast, which extends from Cheticamp to the North Cape, there are only six or eight families settled. This is a terrible shore to approach; and as many vessels, in proportion to the number passing, have been wrecked along the face of its perpendicular cliffs, with the destruction, except in very few instances, of all on board, as on any coast in the world. The lands, however, at a little distance from the sea, among the valleys, and along some streams, indicate great fertility.

Between Cape Lawrence and Cape North, there is a bay eight miles wide; and although it does not seem a mile in depth, when viewed from the sea, it is in reality an indentation of about three miles.

Aspè Bay lies between Cape North, and Cape Egmont, on the Atlantic coast. It has only a harbour for boats, but it has a remarkably fine beach*; and the inhabitants, who are settled around the lagoons formed within it, employ themselves in the pursuits of farming and fishing. The soil of the lands, particularly at some distance back from the shores, is rich and fertile; but being under the influence of the bank fogs, wheat crops are very uncertain. Near Cape Enfumé, at Nigoniche, or Ingoniche, there is a settlement of fishermen.

Cape Enfumè (Smoky Cape) is the highest headland in Cape Breton. Its elevation is not known;

* Mr. Haliburton of Nova Scotia states, that "the sand," of this beach, "in some places, is found black, glittering, and weighty. It instantly arranges its particles in beautiful order upon the magnet, and appears to be iron, nearly pure. Coins, to a large amount, are thrown up from the ocean, the remains of some vessel with specie foundered here."

and on passing it twice, I had not the means of ascertaining its altitude ; but, from comparison, its summit appeared to me about 1800 feet above the level of the sea, and higher than any mountain that is seen from the sea in the British colonies.

Twenty miles to the southward lies St. Anne's Bay and Harbour, which are separated from the principal entrance to Bras d'Or, by the high peninsula of Cape Dauphin. This bay is ten miles deep, to the narrows, which lead to a safe and capacious harbour, eight miles in extreme length, and three in its greatest breadth, but not more than one in some places. It has excellent anchorage, water sufficiently deep for the largest ships, and the high lands which surround the harbour and its narrow entrance protect it from all winds. This place, formerly called Port Dauphin, was first chosen by France in preference to Louisbourg ; but in consequence of the latter opening immediately to the ocean, it was fixed upon, and the former abandoned. The beauty of St. Anne's Harbour, branching into two principal arms, and several coves and creeks, and the bold, yet fertile features of its scenery, must be admired by all who visit the place. It remained, after the conquest of Cape Breton, long unsettled. A few families planted themselves on the south side, near the entrance, more than twenty years ago ; and within the last twelve years, the lands abutting the harbour and rivers have all been granted to Scotch emigrants, who have made greater improvements than any other settlers on the island.

Bras d'Or (Golden Arm) Inlet enters Cape Breton a few miles north of Sydney, and penetrates the island for about fifty miles. It branches, in its course,

into numerous bays, rivers, and creeks, and lays open to maritime intercourse the most valuable lands in the colony. It has two entrances, termed Great and Little Bras d'Or. The former, leading between Cape Dauphin and Boulardrie Island, is deep, and safely navigated by the largest ships. The latter, entering on the south side of the same island, is rendered impassable, except to small vessels, by a dangerous bar.

Boulardrie Island, called after a French nobleman of that name, is about twenty miles in length, and from one to two in breadth; and, lying longitudinally between these entrances, protracts them into straits of the same extent. That of Great Bras d'Or, or the main entrance, is faced on the north-west by high lands, presenting cliffs and rocks, chiefly of gypsum, which frown wildly over its waters. The passage of Little Bras d'Or, to the south-west, is, for the first seven miles from the Atlantic, narrow, crooked, and of barren aspect. It then widens to more than double the breadth of the other strait, until both meet at the western end of Boulardrie, where they unite with Petit Bras d'Or.

Boulardrie Island is rather populously inhabited by Scotch Highlanders and numbers of Irish fishermen, who were formerly employed at Newfoundland, and who now carry on a boat fishing near the great entrance.

From Petit Bras d'Or Lake, Bedeque Inlet parts off to the west, and passing through St. Patrick's channel, branches into several creeks and coves, and then, contracting to a narrow strait, opens again into a capacious sheet of water, nearly twenty miles long, and from one to three broad, with scenery beautifully diversified by irregular coves, jutting points, and an

undulated country. This branch still retains the Indian name Whycocomah. The inhabitants, principally Scotch islanders, are settled along the shores, and not in the most thriving condition, although nothing but the proper application of their labour is necessary to secure them comfortable independence. Several cargoes of timber have been exported from Whycocomah.

The shores of Petit Bras d'Or are settled, most populously on the south side, by emigrants from the Hebrides.

The narrow passage which connects Petit Bras d'Or and Le Bras d'Or has been named the Strait of Barra, from the circumstance of the inhabitants settled in its vicinity, or their fathers, having emigrated from the island of Barra, one of the Hebrides.

Le Bras d'Or, or, as it is usually called, Great Bras d'Or Lake, opens suddenly to a great width, and afterwards branches into four large arms. It is about twenty miles in extreme length, and fifteen in breadth.

The east arm, or St. Andrew's, bends off a few miles to the south-east of Barra Strait, and extends in a north-easterly direction about twenty miles, from Benakaady to Tweed Porge basin at its head. Its shores are indented with coves and creeks. On the north shore, at the harbour of Escasoni, which lies within a cluster of islands, there is a tract of land occupied by the Micmac Indians, some of whom are stationary, cultivate the ground, and possess some cattle. All the other lands fronting on this arm are occupied by Scotch Highlanders. Opposite a headland, which forms the extremity of the south shore of St. Andrew's Bay, are the Red Islands, from which the south branch, or arm, formed into various chan-

nels by the islands it contains, extends about twelve miles, until arrested by the narrow isthmus which separates it from the waters of St. Peter's Bay.

St. George's Channel, or the west arm, lies a few miles farther west. It is about six miles broad, and fifteen miles deep from the inlets bearing the Indian name *Malaga-waacht*. This bay contains several islands; its shores are thinly settled, principally by Scotch islanders. The lands on the north side are high, and form a mountainous ridge, which separates this bay from the inlet of River Denys.

This last branch breaks off abruptly from the north shore of Barra Strait, and forms, first, a broad bay, then contracts, and winds through intricate passages among islands for some miles, and opens again into a basin, along which there are several inlets, and at its head receives the waters of a beautiful winding river. The inhabitants are principally emigrants from the Hebrides. Both the soil and timber of the lands fronting on this inlet are excellent.

The waters of the Bras d'Or are in many places forty fathoms, and in some places sixty fathoms deep, and afford many capacious safe harbours. It abounds with cod, which are caught at all seasons (in the winter through a hole cut in the ice), besides various other kinds of fish.

The scenery of this vast inlet is in some places beautifully picturesque; in some others, monotonous and uninteresting; and, in many parts, exhibits the sombre gloom of pine forests, the luxuriant verdure of broad valleys and wooded mountains, and the wild features of lofty promontories frowning in stubborn ruggedness over the waters of the rivers and inlets.

...Innumerable, but generally very small lakes, and

a multiplicity of streams of fresh water, are met with in the interior, — chiefly in the southern divisions of the island.

Marguerite, or Lake Ainslie, is the largest sheet of fresh water in Cape Breton. It is only, however, about twelve miles long, and from three to four in breadth. The lands surrounding it indicate fertility; and their cultivation by Scotch Highlanders has lately commenced. A stream runs from it, which forms Marguerite River.

The roads of Cape Breton are still few in number, and in bad condition. Roads lead from Sydney to Lingan, Cow Bay, Mirè River, Manadon, Louisburg, the Coal Mines, Boulardrie Ferry, Barra Strait, and St. Peter's; from Great Bras d'Or, again, to St. Ann's, Bedeque, and from thence to Marguerite. Arichat communicates by the ferry across Lennox Strait, and by roads, with St. Peter's and Sydney, with the Bras d'Or, River Inhabitants, and the Strait of Canseau, from which there is a road along the gulf coast as far as Cheticamp.

Broad Cove communicates with Lake Marguerite by a road; and roads lead between Port Hood and Whycocomah and River Denys.

Most of these roads are little better than paths, while some of them are scarcely more than blazed through, with fallen trees cut away; but a rapidly increasing population will soon provide the labour, and judicious measures will only be necessary to make good roads between all the settlements.

CHAP. XIX.

POPULATION. — CHARACTERISTICS AND PURSUITS OF THE INHABITANTS. — AGRICULTURE, TRADE, ETC.

THE population of Cape Breton, estimated at from 30,000 to 32,000, consists of people from various countries, and of those born on the island.

Scotch, from the Western Highlands and isles of Scotland, form the greater proportion of the inhabitants, and are found, in settlements within the Bras d'Or: along the shores of the Strait of Canseau and the coast, to the harbour of Justua Corps; at Cape Mabou; and on the Atlantic shore at St. Esprit. Several industrious families, the descendants of American loyalists, are also settled in different places. Numbers of Irish, who, in the first instance, generally emigrated to Newfoundland, are scattered among the settlers; and a few English, Jersey men, and Dutch, are mixed with the other inhabitants.

Acadian French are, next to the Scotch, the most numerous class; and their settlements are chiefly at Arichat, Petit de Grat, Ardoise, Little Bras d'Or, Marguerite, and Cheticamp. About 300 Micmac Indians wander through the woods and along the shores. They have six reservations of land in different parts of the island, but they do not hold the same by any tenure but that of possession and sufferance. These tracts are at Escasoni, Chapel Island*, River Denys,

Wagama-takook, Whycocomah, within the Bras d'Or, and at Marguerite. One or more of these places are their rallying points, where they meet during summer, and where some families remain stationary. These possess some cattle, and cultivate a little Indian corn, and a few potatoes.

From the badness and want of roads, and the consequent difficulty of travelling, that intercourse which is so common in Canada, Nova Scotia, and Prince Edward Island, between the inhabitants of one settlement and another, does not exist in Cape Breton; nor is there yet the same facility of having children instructed in the rudiments of education, while society is also in a more simple state than in any of the other colonies. There is scarcely a good school in the colony, if one or two at Sydney and Arichat be not exceptions. It is complained of by the inhabitants, that no adequate provision is made by the colonial legislature for establishing good schools, although the present condition of the island warrants the same.

The inhabitants, especially the Acadians, and Scotch and Irish Catholics, adhere to the tenets of the faith which has descended to them from their forefathers, and have the service of their church performed, in almost all the settlements, by priests educated in Canada. There can scarcely be said to be

* On this island they have a chapel and burying-ground. They received a present of some red paint for the former, I believe from the provincial government; but the colour, which, in most cases, the Indians admire, did not please in this instance; their objection, as they expressed it in English, was, "Because certain make chapel look all same as one store;" warehouses in America being usually painted with red ochre and oil.

any stationary clergymen of other persuasions, except at Sydney; and lately a Presbyterian pastor was fixed at St. Ann's, among the orderly and industrious people settled there. Presbyterian, and, more commonly, Methodist preachers, go occasionally among the inhabitants, to preach and baptize.

The colony, being now, however, a component part of the province of Nova Scotia, begins already to feel the advantage of the connection. It is probable the benefits of instruction may, in a few years, be received in every part of the island. Travelling by land through the country will also, in a short period, be rendered less difficult. As the country becomes more populously settled, the inhabitants will improve in their mode of husbandry, gradually change their habits of living, become more industrious, and feel a pride in having their houses neatly built, as well as comfortably furnished; neither of which is at present generally the case, although it is well ascertained that nothing but industry and good management is required to enable them to obtain all the necessaries and conveniences of life.

The Scotch Highlanders and islanders, who form the majority of the population, are not mixed with settlers by whose example they might be stimulated to exertion, and from whom they might learn a better system of agriculture and domestic management. Contented to exist as their progenitors did, they seem careless about living in a more comfortable, cleanly, and respectable style. It is, however, satisfactory and pleasing to know, that neither beggary, nor the want of necessary food and clothing, can be discovered on the island.*

* The majority of the inhabitants of Cape Breton, particularly in

With few exceptions, the general characteristics of the people are honesty and hospitality ; but many of the inhabitants about the Strait of Canseau, and a few in the vicinity of the North Cape, are considered as infamous characters as any who exist unpunished. These were probably the most worthless people in the countries from whence they came ; and, living in this colony, until the last few years, nearly beyond the limits of justice, their principles have not likely undergone a favourable change.

Agriculture, generally speaking, is in a most slovenly and barbarous condition. The inhabitants, it is true, within the Bras d'Or, and at a few places along the gulf shore, subsist principally by cultivating the soil, and rearing cattle and sheep ; but wherever there are harbours for fishing or exporting timber, the farmers soon acquire the propensity, so common in America, of dabbling in pursuits unconnected with agriculture, such as fishing, hewing timber, building schooners, &c.

The Acadian French leave the cultivation of their small farms, in a great measure, to the management of their wives, daughters, and younger sons. The quality of the soil in most places where they are settled, except at Marguerite and Cheticamp, justifies

the Bras d'Or settlements, being from the Outer Hebrides, we still discover their habits, manners, and customs, much the same as we find them at the present day among the people of Lewis, Uist, and Barra : and the necessary experience of all these islanders in managing boats, is a great advantage to them on arriving in Cape Breton, where, until they raise crops, they can always secure at least as good a living as they previously enjoyed, by the means of fishing.

the pursuits of men who follow fishing, or employ themselves in carrying freights coastwise in their schooners and shallops. These vessels are built more for the purpose of sailing fast than for carrying large cargoes; they are slightly constructed, little iron being used for the fastenings, nor do they consider one-fourth part of the cordage necessary that is required in vessels of the same size rigged in England. They have only three sails, frequently but one cable, and nothing in the shape of spare rope or sails, in case of accidents; notwithstanding which, they are often out in heavy gales, in which they make, according to the sailors' phrase, "good weather of it;" and they are scarcely ever shipwrecked.

The fisheries have long formed the chief source from which the inhabitants have obtained the means of subsistence, as well as the most valuable branch of commercial importance. The Acadians are those chiefly employed; they fish in their shallops and boats. Herrings and mackerel, a portion of which they pickle, constitute a great share of their catch; but the quantity so cured is uncertain, a great part being taken away by the traders, and much carried to Halifax, a small portion of which is only considered to be entered at the custom-house at Cape Breton.

The position of Cape Breton is equal to that of Newfoundland for the cod, and particularly for the herring and mackerel fisheries; but the business at this place has never been conducted on the systematic plan, which long-established usage has made peculiar to the latter colony.

From fifteen to twenty cargoes of timber have been annually exported for some years, from Sydney, and from harbours within the Bras d'Or, to England.

The ships that took out emigrants, brought back cargoes of timber. Several large vessels have also been built on the island, but the decreased value of shipping has checked the progress of this business. Plaster of Paris, or gypsum, was, for many years, exported from the Gut of Canseau to the United States of America; but the Americans are now chiefly supplied with that article from the Bay of Fundy. Live cattle, butter, cheese, potatoes, and oats, have become articles of export, for some time past, to Halifax and Newfoundland. Coal has also been an article of export to the neighbouring colonies for some years, and lately to the United States.

The vessels belonging to Cape Breton, about 150 in all, are principally shallops and schooners from 30 to 80 tons, and a few vessels that register from 100 to 200 tons. The shallops and schooners are chiefly the property of the Acadian French, who also own probably more than half the fishing boats. The number of the latter may be estimated at 700, exclusive of those used for the double purpose of fishing and passage boats, by the Highland Scotch.

The customs returns, for 1832, give the value of imports, chiefly British manufactures, at about 78,000*l.*; and the exports, consisting of timber to England, 9,500 loads; coals to the United States, &c., 22,911 chaldrons; pickled fish, 21,000 barrels; dried fish, 44,000 quintals; oil, 2500 barrels; live stock, 820 head; oats, &c. 6000 bushels; potatoes, 13,000 ditto. Whole value about 80,000*l.*

If Louisburg had not been demolished, it is very probable that Cape Breton would at this time have been a populous and flourishing colony. To the levelling of that town and fortress may justly be attri-

buted the oblivion which has so long enveloped this valuable and important island. •

To Great Britain, its possession is of the utmost consequence. The naval power of France, it is well known, began to decline from the time they were driven out of the North American fisheries by the conquest of Louisburg; and the Americans of the United States would consider Cape Breton a boon more valuable to them, as a nation, than any of our West India islands. Did they but once obtain it, with its coal mines and gypsum, and as a fishing station, and also as a position to command the surrounding seas and coast, their naval force would, in a few years, have sufficient physical strength to cope with any power in Europe, not even excepting England. Let not the British nation, therefore, lose sight of this colony. It is capable of supporting from four to five hundred thousand inhabitants. If it were once populously settled, the people would adhere more steadily to regular pursuits. The farmers would follow agriculture alone, and the fishermen would, at the same time, find it advantageous to persevere in fishing, as the pursuit in which, by habit and experience, they had acquired the most perfect knowledge. Particular care should, however, be taken to render the inhabitants readily effective as a militia, to defend the colony in the event of its being attacked. The farmers would then be prepared to defend their own property, which is probably the cause for which a militia will most bravely fight. The fishermen may at all times, from the hazardous business they follow, be considered hardy and dauntless seamen.

CHAP. XX.

DESCRIPTIONS OF ST. PAUL'S ISLAND, OF THE ISLE OF SABLE,
OF THE MAGDALEN ISLANDS, AND OF ANTICOSTI.

THE extent and surface of St. Paul's Island, or rather rock, for it is little more, would be undeserving of notice, were it not the passive sullen cause of probably more serious disasters than any spot of the same size on the face of the globe. It rises, black and steep, out of the principal entrance to the Gulf of St. Lawrence, in a direct line between Cape Ray, in Newfoundland, and the north cape of Cape Breton, about ten miles distant from the latter. Its length is about a mile, its breadth less than half a mile. It appears with three hills, the highest of which, selected for the lighthouse, is 229 feet above the level of the sea. The water is very deep close to the rocks; and it has a steep beechy cove on the north-west, where a boat of ten tons may sometimes land, and also a cove, but not fit to land at, on the north-east side. Between the rocks, which are chiefly dark floetz in vertical strata, intercepted by veins of reddish granite, some mossy spots retain water, which oozes again through crevices, and in some places forms small rivulets. It produces nothing but moss, a little grass, some small hardy shrubs, and a few stunted firs. As there is tolerable anchorage on both sides of the island, those who are acquainted frequently run under the lee of it for shelter. This

was practised by the American privateers during the last war. The situation of this island is what renders it so dangerous. When fogs prevail in the spring, and tempestuous long dark nights in the fall, many fine ships that we know of, and many more that we never heard of, otherwise than by the remnant of their wrecks, have, with their crews, perished on this inhospitable rock. So frequent have shipwrecks been upon this island, that the fishermen of Cheticamp resort to it every spring, for the purpose of collecting whatever may be found. The dangerous coast of Cape Breton, between Cape North and Cheticamp, having long been fatal to numberless ships and their crews, vessels leaving Quebec, and all parts within the gulf, in the fall, from the dread of striking the cliffs of that shore, and keeping too far off, have dashed against St. Paul's. Eight or nine large ships, with their crews, have perished on it during the last six or seven years. A few years ago, a transport, with two hundred lives, perished. Many of the bodies, men, women, and children, floated ashore along the coast of Cape Breton.

Among the rocks in the water, and on the surface of the island, human bones are thickly scattered. Not less than fourteen large anchors have very lately been counted lying at the bottom of the sea. This number must be small in proportion to those imbedded in the sand, or otherwise hid from sight. A good lighthouse, provided with a great gun, to be used in thick weather, might have prevented most of these wrecks, and saved the lives of the crews and passengers.*

* There is scarcely a more melancholy catastrophe than that of the ship *Jessie*, which occurred in 1823. This vessel, with Mr.

The legislature of Canada have agreed, in conjunction with the other colonies, to erect a lighthouse on this dread spot, which will, doubtless, be the cause of saving thousands of lives, besides a vast amount of property.

ISLE OF SABLE.

This Isle of Sable, or *Isle aux Sable*, long terrible,

Donald Mackay, the owner, and some other passengers, and the master and crew, twenty-six in number, left the harbour of Three Rivers, in Prince Edward Island; and as the ship was observed off the coast of Cape Breton, near Cheticamp, during a snow-storm on the 27th of December, it is probable she struck in the night on St. Paul's Island.

In the month of May following, (no account having before been received of the vessel,) it was reported that some fishermen had discovered the wreck of a ship, and a number of bodies, on St. Paul's Island. On this report, a schooner was despatched thence from Charlotte Town, the people on board of which found the wreck of the *Jessie*, and the bodies of eleven men, who must have perished by the intense cold soon after landing; the remainder of the crew, it is likely, were either washed overboard by the surf, or lost in attempting to get up the cliff. The bodies of Mr. Mackay and the master were carried to Charlotte Town; nothing could be more melancholy than their funerals, which were attended by the greatest concourse of people ever known in Charlotte Town to accompany the remains of any person to the mansions of the dead. I had for some years enjoyed the friendship of this gentleman. I was one of the last that parted with him on leaving the island; and six months afterwards I saw his body laid in the grave. When I say that few men have left the world more regretted by his acquaintance, that in his manners he was truly a gentleman, and that he possessed, in an eminent degree, all the kind and good qualities which gain the hearts and the esteem of men, no one who knew him will say that I exaggerate. He was born in Scotland, served his Majesty for some years, was taken on the coast of France, and detained ten years a prisoner in that country.

and often fatal to American navigators, lies about the usual track of vessels bound to and from Europe to Nova Scotia, New Brunswick, and the United States. By late careful observations, its east end is in $43^{\circ} 59' 5''$ north latitude, and in $59^{\circ} 42'$ west longitude; and the west point in $43^{\circ} 57'$ latitude, and in $60^{\circ} 17' 15''$ longitude. It is little else than a collection of sand rising in hills, or, as the sailors term them, hummocks. One of these is about a hundred feet high, and said to be increasing in size. There is not a tree nor a shrub larger than a whortleberry-bush on the island. It produces a strong natural bent grass, and, in the hollows, abundance of cranberries. Its form is that of a crescent, the hollow of which is on the north side, and consequently the most dangerous. The north-east reef, or bar, is about a mile and a half wide, and extends twenty-eight miles; over the whole length of which the sea breaks in stormy weather. The north-west reef stretches out eight miles. Both have been dreadfully fatal to ships bound to and from North America. Although the majority of the crews have perished, yet this island has not been quite so destructive of human life as St. Paul's. In 1801, the legislature of Nova Scotia, greatly to their honour, passed an act, empowering the governor to make provision for establishing some families on Sable Island, to afford relief to those who escaped from the wrecks, and to prevent plunder. Two years ago, the British government, on the representation of Sir James Kempt, added 400*l.* a-year to the amount annually granted by Nova Scotia, to support this most humane establishment. During the late war, the American government issued an order, forbidding their armed

vessels to intercept or injure vessels bound to or from Sable Island. Since 1802, forty-two ships have been wrecked on it; probably some others were lost on the reefs without being heard of: the number lost previously must have been very great.

The Honourable Michael Wallace of Halifax, who has occasionally, with great satisfaction, administered the government of Nova Scotia, has, since the formation of the establishment at Sable Island, gratuitously directed its management. The superintendent, Edward Hodgson, who has been on the island since 1804, was appointed by Mr. Wallace; and, with his family, consisting of four sons and a daughter, and four or five servants, form the members of the establishment. The business of the superintendent is to use his utmost exertion to save the lives and property of those who may be wrecked. A vessel visits the island periodically with provisions, and to bring off those who may be cast on its shores. The goods and materials saved from wrecks are carried to Halifax, and sold for the benefit of all concerned, retaining the usual salvage. There have been no less than three hundred people on the island at one time, and the stock of provisions kept at the depôt, has always proved sufficient. After a storm, the superintendent sends his people to traverse the shores in every direction; and in the event of vessels being carried ashore by the currents, or running on in thick weather, a party travels round the island weekly. It has no harbour; but a large lagoon, eighteen miles long, and more than half a mile wide, is formed by a sandy ridge thrown up by the sea. It has been named Lake Wallace. A storm, some years ago, broke through the sandy ridge, and formed an inlet, which

for some time afforded a harbour for small coasters ; but a subsequent storm closed it up again, and shut in two small American fishing vessels. There is at present only a mere brook running from it into the sea. About the middle of the north side of the lake stands the house of the superintendent, and the stores for provisions, &c., and goods and materials saved from wrecks. On the high hill adjoining, there is a signal-staff made out of the spritsail yard of the French frigate, *L'Africane*, wrecked in 1822, from which signals are made to vessels in distress. At each end of the lake there is a small house, in which are deposited directions to find the dépôt, and the means of kindling a fire. Nothing is planted on the island except a few cabbages, which, cultivated with much care, have arrived at maturity. The climate, however, is not so severe as that of Nova Scotia.

One great cause of shipwreck is the current running to the south-west, between the coast of America and the Gulf Stream, which frequently carries vessels much further west than their reckoning. There is always a vast quantity of drift timber ashore on the island.

The horrors of a storm on this island are described as truly terrible. The whole island trembles and vibrates, as the mighty ocean strikes and breaks along its whole length. The sand is swept furiously along, and whirled round the hills ; the bars shift, and the island seems prepared to separate, and retreat from before the violence of the winds, and the thunders of the Atlantic.

It appears, however, that although some have considered that the island is decreasing, it in reality gains

in one place what it loses in another. The site of the residence of the first superintendent is now three miles out in the sea, and covered with two fathoms water. The storms frequently expose to view human skeletons, and pieces of wrecks that have been buried many years.

Notwithstanding the unstable and barren nature of this ridge of sandy downs, for it is nothing more, it was thought worthy of settlement by the French before they attempted to plant any part of the continent of America. The Marquis de la Roche landed forty malefactors on it, in 1598, to establish a colony. He then proceeded to the coast of Nova Scotia, but effecting nothing, and being unable to deliver the wretches left on Sable Island, he returned to France, where he is said to have died soon after of a broken heart.

These people would have perished for want of food, had not a number of sheep escaped from a vessel that was wrecked soon after. Henry IV. sent a vessel, seven years afterwards, to take them off; and on their arrival in France, he was so moved with their haggard appearance, dressed rudely in skins, that he not only pardoned them, but gave each fifty crowns to begin the world with.

The Portuguese sent some cattle to the place, at a very early period, for the relief of those who escaped from wrecks, which increased fast; but they are said to have been all killed by worthless avaricious men, for their hides and tallow. It was again stocked with cattle more than once, which were also destroyed; and, in consequence, horses were sent there, the race of which are still in considerable numbers (about 300) on the island. The young ones are shot for provisions when

required; but as they are remarkably wild, it is exceedingly difficult to approach within gun-shot of them. The manes of the old ones reach frequently to their knees. Rabbits were also sent to the island, which have multiplied astonishingly fast. Aquatic birds in great numbers frequent the island, and hatch their young on it. Seals, of the species *Phoca-ursina*, resort to the island, principally about the north-east bar, for the purpose of bringing forth their young. They are very large, and are frequently killed by the servants of the superintendent.

MAGDALEN ISLANDS.

This cluster of islands is situated within the Gulf of St. Lawrence, seventy-three miles distant from Newfoundland, sixty miles from Prince Edward Island, and sixty-five miles from Cape Breton. They are the property of Sir Isaac Coffin, who appears to take very little interest in them.* The inhabitants, about 1000 in number, are Acadian French, who live principally by means of fishing, and some families of English and Irish. In the month of April, they go in their shallops among the fields of ice that float in the gulf, in quest of seals; and in summer, they employ themselves in fishing for herring and cod. The inhabitants, of French descent, have fair complexions, flaxen hair, are cheerful, simple, and chaste.

The soil of these islands is a light sandy loam, resting on freestone. It yields barley, oats, and potatoes; and wheat would likely grow, but the quantity

* Since the above was written, the worthy baronet, it is said, has taken measures to direct the application of the rents which may be derived from these islands, to the support of a number of his relatives in the American navy.

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of soil fit for cultivation, is no more than the fisher-
men require for potato gardens, and a little pasture.
Some parts are covered with spruce, birch, and juniper
trees; others are formed into sandy downs, produc-
ing bent grass: cranberries, juniper berries, and
various other wild fruits, are very abundant. The
only wild animals, unless it be mice, are foxes and
horses; there are no reptiles.

A few miles to the north, Brion and Bird Islands
are situated. Multitudes of aquatic birds frequent
them for the purpose of hatching. I have seen shal-
lops loaded with eggs, in bulk, which were brought
from these islands to Nova Scotia and Prince Edward
Island, for sale.

The Magdalen Islands are under the government
of Canada*, and the inhabitants are amenable to the
courts of Quebec, 600 miles distant; a most incon-
venient regulation, when they are so much nearer
Prince Edward Island.

There are two chapels, in which alternately a priest
sent from Quebec officiates. Plentiful fishing banks,
of which the Americans of the United States derive
the principal advantage, abound in every direction
near these islands.

ANTICOSTI.

This island is said to owe its name to the Indian
word, Naticoti, but it is more likely from the Spanish
Antecuesta. It is situated in the Gulf of St. Lawrence,
and near the entrance of that great river. It is within
the latitudes of $49^{\circ} 8'$ and $49^{\circ} 53'$, and longitudes of
 $61^{\circ} 45'$ and $64^{\circ} 37'$. Its length is 125 miles, and its

* Annexed to that government in 1809, by 49 Geo. III. cap. 27.

greatest breadth about 30. The whole of its north coast is high, and without harbours. The rocks that present themselves are calcareous, and contain various animal petrifications.

The water, close to the cliffs, is very deep; and there are some coves where vessels may take shelter with the wind blowing off the land. The south shore is low; the lands wet and swampy, and covered with birch and fir trees. There is a bar harbour near the west point, which will admit small vessels. It can scarcely be said that this island has any rivers, if that called Jupiter river be not an exception. On the south the water is shoal, but the soundings are regular; flat rocky reefs extend a considerable distance from the east, west, and some other points; sandy downs line a great part of the south coast, within which there are lagoons or ponds, filled by small streams running into them from the interior. During stormy weather and high tides, the sea frequently makes its way over the sands into these lagoons, out of which, also, there are small streams running into the gulf. Shipwrecks have frequently occurred along the shores of Anticosti; and the crews have, in many instances, perished after landing, from severe cold, and want of food.*

Government, several years ago, established a station, with a family, at each end of the island, and

* The fate of the crews of three ships wrecked on this island, in the fall of 1828, on their homeward passage, must have either been attended by the most revolting sufferings, or they must have been murdered by a piratical gang, who are said to infest the place. The mutilated and disjointed bodies, some parts of which were found salted in a chest, discovered in the hut which those unfortunate men had erected, led to the conclusion that those who survived longest lived on the flesh of the dead.

posts, without inhabitants, along the shore, with directions to persons who have escaped from shipwreck where to proceed. Two lighthouses are to be erected, one on each end, by an act of the Canadian legislature.

Of the interior of this island we know but little. It is covered with woods, chiefly dwarf spruce, white cedar, birch, and poplar: the trees appear to be all of low and stunted growth. Near the shore the land appears unfit for cultivation. A few spots of tolerable soil are, it is true, met with; but the want of harbours, and the severity of the climate, are insuperable objections to its settlement. It is a seignory, being formerly under the government of Canada, and belongs, I believe, to a private family at Quebec. It was for some time under the jurisdiction of Newfoundland, and in 1825 annexed, as within the county of Saguenay, to Canada. The Indians, who, on their hunting excursions, have penetrated into the interior, have informed me that the lands are swampy or wet, with the exception of a few hills.

Bears, foxes, hares, and sables, are very numerous. Partridges, snipes, curlews, plovers, &c. abound.

CHAP. XXI.

STATISTICS OF NOVA SCOTIA AND CAPE BRETON.—POPULATION.
—CULTIVATED LAND.—LIVE STOCK.—AGRICULTURAL PRO-
DUCE, AND PRODUCE OF THE WOODS AND FISHERIES.—EX-
PORTS AND IMPORTS, ETC.

THERE is great difficulty, and more than ordinary labour and care necessary in obtaining and reducing to probable certainty the statistics of all new countries; and the most correct calculations must be defective. With the exception of the customs' returns, and the calculations I found among the records of the Chamber of Commerce of Halifax, I could obtain no data, otherwise than by personal knowledge of the settlements, and information received from residents at each, to enable me to state the number of mills, cultivated land, live stock, &c. By carefully comparing all my materials, and by computations brought down to the beginning of the year 1833, the following statements will, I believe, be found not far from the truth.

The population of the province, in 1749, when Halifax was founded, including New Brunswick, was	- - - - -	18,000
In 1755, when the French neutrals were removed, the remaining British were about	- -	5,000
In 1764, the population, including New Brunswick, and the Island of St. John and Cape Breton (gained by conquest), was	- - -	13,000
In 1772, these colonies contained	- -	19,100
In 1781, in consequence of the American war, only	- -	12,000
In 1784, after the war, Nova Scotia, New Bruns- wick, Prince Edward Island, and Cape Breton, contained	- - - - -	32,000

POPULATION.

479

In 1790, Nova Scotia proper contained	-	-	30,000
In 1817	-	-	86,760
In 1827, when the last census was taken	-	-	123,848
In 1832, computing the natural increase since that period, and emigration at something under the probable ratio, the population will be found at least	-	-	165,134

To which, the present population of the county of Cape Breton, which may now be computed at 31,000: this will increase the present population of the whole province to

196,134

The census of 1827 gave, exclusive of Cape Breton, the following returns:—

Horses	-	-	-	12,952
Horned cattle	-	-	-	110,776
Sheep	-	-	-	174,653
Swine	-	-	-	71,904
Acres under cultivation	-	-	-	292,130
Wheat,	-	-	(bushels)	152,836
Other kinds of grain	-	-	(ditto)	449,400
Potatoes	-	-	(ditto)	3,358,390
Hay	-	-	(tons)	163,170

Computing the increase of industry, and the improvements made from the 1st of January 1828, to the 1st of January 1833, I find the following results (in which Cape Breton is included), for the whole province:—

Inhabitants	-	-	-	-	195,130
Dwelling-houses	-	-	-	-	32,521
Colleges	-	-	-	-	1
Seminaries, called Colleges	-	-	-	-	2
Grammar schools	-	-	-	-	24
Elementary schools	-	-	-	-	210
Warehouses for fish, West India produce, &c.	-	-	-	-	292
Retail stores, or shops	-	-	-	-	384
Grist mills, oat mills, fulling, flax, and carding mills	-	-	-	-	289

Saw mills	-	-	-	-	-	241
Sugar refineries	-	-	-	-	-	1
Tobacco manufactories	-	-	-	-	-	3
Distilleries and breweries	-	-	-	-	-	8
Paper mills	-	-	-	-	-	1
Iron foundries	-	-	-	-	-	3
Cultivated acres	-	-	-	-	-	398,964
Horses	-	-	-	-	-	19,435
Horned cattle	-	-	-	-	-	144,796
Sheep	-	-	-	-	-	234,653
Swine	-	-	-	-	-	98,214
Bushels of wheat	-	-	-	-	-	267,275
Indian corn, oats, barley, buckwheat, pease, and beans	-	-	-	-	-	623,400
Potatoes, turnips, and carrots	-	-	-	-	-	4,628,391
Tons of hay	-	-	-	-	-	214,170

Produce of the fisheries exported in the year ending
5th January, 1833.

160,640 cwts. dry fish, at 10s.	-	-	£80,320	0	0
37,154 barrels pickled fish, at 15s.	-	-	27,865	10	0
8,641 boxes smoked herrings, at 3s.	-	-	1,296	3	0
7Q4 tons oil, at 20l.	-	-	14,080	0	0
51,918 seal skins, at 1s. 6d.	-	-	3,893	17	0
Total	-	-	£127,455	10	0

Produce of agriculture.

Barley and oats, 3478 bushels, at 2s.	-	-	£347	16	0
Potatoes and turnips, 64,712 at 1s. 6d.	-	-	4,853	12	0
Oatmeal, seven barrels, at 20s.	-	-	7	0	0
Flax-seed, 10 bushels	-	-	2	10	0
Horned cattle, horses, sheep, and swine,					
926, value,	-	-	4,630	0	0
Butter, cheese, and lard, - 85.724, value,	-	-	4,286	4	0
Cranberries - 496 gallons	-	-	24	6	0
Apples - 260 barrels	-	-	130	0	0
Beef and pork - 434 barrels	-	-	1,302	0	0
Total	-	-	£15,583	8	0

Produce of the mines exported.

Coals	- - 12,020 chaldrons, at 25s.	-	£15,025	0	0
Ditto, from Cape Breton,	30,677 chaldrons		38,371	15	0
Gypsum	- 45,508 tons, at 10s.	-	22,754	0	0
Ditto, from Cape Breton,	628½ tons	-	318	5	0
Grindstones	19,240 at 30s.	-	28,860	0	0
			£105,329	0	0

Produce of the forests.

Square timber,	38,191 tons, at 15s.	- -	£29,643	5	0
Deals and inch boards,	9,984,000	- -	24,280	0	0
Lathwood,	228 loads	- -	228	0	0
Staves,	2,714,000	- -	3,569	0	0
Shingles,	3,042,000	- -	2,281	10	0
Handspikes,	2,300	- -	115	0	0
Oars, poles, &c.	3,894	- -	45	0	0
Masts and spars,	642	- -	200	0	0
Hoops,	228,150	- -	114	1	3
Value of timber shipped from Cape Breton			1,972	0	0
Total			£62,447	16	3

The balance of exports consists of various articles transhipped, principally West India produce, tea from China, &c.

By the official returns for the year ending December, 1831, the number of ships on the registry of the province was 1299; tonnage, 83,981. Of these, about 160 are square-rigged vessels; the remainder schooners and shallops, from 15 tons to 120 tons.

The number of keel boats used in the fisheries and for other purposes are —

Owned in Nova Scotia	- -	3,920
in Cape Breton	- -	1,419
Total	- -	5,339

**GENERAL ABSTRACT of EXPORTS and IMPORTS at the Port of
HALIFAX, from 5th January, 1831, to 5th January, 1832.**

IMPORTS.

	Ships.	Tons.	Men.	Value.
From Great Britain - -	95	27,363	1,288	£568,605
Bordeaux - -	3	549	34	19,866
Hamburgh - -	1	151	9	455
Memel - -	2	625	28	2,418
Jersey - -	1	72	6	1,500
Gibraltar - -	3	304	18	9,989
Coastwise - -	997	95,638	3,234	288,664
St. Pierre - -	1	35	3	16
British W. Indies	276	27,843	1,621	261,371
Brazil - -	8	1,057	58	3,717
Canton, E. I. Com.	1	586	45	63,828
United States, in British ships -	89	8,688	471	81,700
Do. in foreign do.	93	10,060	502	136,138
Terceira - -	1	113	5	1,527
Mauritius - -	2	308	19	8,471
Total -	1,573	173,392	7,341	£1,447,673

EXPORTS.

	Ships.	Tons.	Men.	Value.
To Great Britain - -	72	19,164	963	£127,336
Gibraltar - -	2	241	13	1,674
Leghorn - -	1	64	4	4,555
Sicily - -	1	112	6	1,040
Brazil - -	11	1,685	93	16,678
Cape of Good Hope	1	121	78	2,000
South Seas - -	1	402	28	562
Coastwise - -	1,161	114,686	3,505	334,993
British West Indies	296	30,577	2,751	291,164
United States, in Bri- tish ships -	107	9,979	559	25,453
Do. in foreign do.	86	9,778	493	20,421
Mauritius - -	1	187	3	95
Madeira - -	1	64	11	4,500
St. Croix - -	1	111	4	1,400
St. Pierre and Mi- quelon - -	1	35	5	600
Total -	1,743	187,226	8,445	£827,460

(Signed) J. WALLACE, Comptroller.

Custom House, Halifax, Jan. 5. 1832.

at the Port of
Halifax, 1892.

ACCOUNT OF VESSELS entered INWARDS and OUTWARDS in the
Ports of HALIFAX and NOVA SCOTIA, in the Year ending
5th January, 1893.

Value.
£568,605
19,866
455
2,418
1,500
9,389
288,664
16
261,371
3,717
63,828
81,700
136,138
1,527
8,471
£1,447,673

Value.
£127,336
1,674
4,555
1,040
16,678
2,000
562
334,993
291,164
25,453
20,421
95
4,500
1,400
600
£827,460

	Inwards.			Outwards.		
	Ships.	Tons.	Men.	Ships.	Tons.	Men.
United Kingdom -	110	17,454	2,317	104	25,429	1,174
Bordeaux -	2	254	16	0	0	0
Oporto -	1	160	9	1	112	6
Guernsey and Jersey	3	379	22	0	0	0
Cadiz -	0	0	0	1	90	6
Smyrna -	2	251	15	0	0	0
Memel -	4	992	41	0	0	0
British West Indies	289	27,023	1,563	292	27,430	1,724
St. Petersburg -	1	227	12	0	0	0
British N. A. Col. -	1,046	63,945	3,784	1,104	69,166	4,048
Azores and Madeira	2	187	12	4	350	19
Malaga and Gibraltar	7	834	46	2	237	13
Foreign Vessels from India or Europe -	0	0	0	1	150	13
United States, British Vessels -	397	31,443	1,559	398	31,666	1,598
United States, Foreign Vessels -	77	7,921	413	75	9,549	461
Brazils -	6	1,381	98	10	1,584	82
Mauritius -	1	187	10	0	0	0
Canton -	1	594	48	0	0	0
Africa -	0	0	0	1	90	7
Rio Janeiro -	1	151	8	0	0	0
Havanna -	0	0	0	2	191	11
Total -	1,950	163,385	9,973	1,995	166,047	9,162

Customs, Halifax, Nova Scotia, Jan. 5. 1893.

The following table shows an increase of 10,644 tons inwards more than last year. The increase arises from the additional number of vessels employed in the coal trade, in bringing out emigrants, and in the general extension of the trade with the neighbouring colonies.

AN ACCOUNT of Vessels entered INWARDS and cleared OUTWARDS at the Ports of SYDNEY, CAPE BRETON, and its out BAYS, for the Year ending 5th January, 1833.

	Inwards.			Outwards.		
	Ships.	Tons.	Men.	Ships.	Tons.	Men.
United Kingdom -	19	4,856	219	7	1,304	66
Guernsey and Jersey	6	695	52	5	485	47
British West Indies	5	378	16	4	291	25
North American Col.	513	30,772	1,568	552	31,574	1,495
Foreign, Europe in						
British Ships -	5	965	51	4	399	33
Foreign, Europe in						
Foreign Ships -	5	1,350	50	0	0	0
United States, British						
Ships -	21	3,116	138	69	8,180	412
United States, Foreign						
Ships -	83	10,387	459	106	13,581	585
Foreign Colonies, in						
British Vessels -	1	33	2	2	96	6
Foreign Colonies, in						
Foreign Vessels -	9	753	38	0	0	0
Brazils -	0	0	0	3	486	31
Total -	666	53,305	2,593	752	56,396	2,700

Custom-House, Sydney, 5th Jan. 1833.

The revenue of the province, arising from import duties collected at the customs and excise, was by the last statement 55,176*l.* 3*s.* 8½*d.*; the expenditure, 59,751*l.* 10*s.* 3*d.*

The balance of expenditure was paid out of money in the treasurer's hands. The distribution of the expenditure was, for roads, 30,000*l.*, and the remainder for the administration of justice, schools, public buildings, lighthouses, &c.

The revenue for 1832, and its distribution, under the late arrangement, with the salaries of public officers, will be found in the general summary of colonial statistics, at the conclusion of the second volume of this work. See Book IX.

cleared Out-
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Outwards.	
Tons.	Men.
1,304	66
485	47
201	25
31,574	1,493
399	33
0	0
9,180	412
13,581	585
96	6
0	0
486	31
56,396	2,700

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BOOK V.

PRINCE EDWARD ISLAND.

CHAPTER I.

GEOGRAPHICAL POSITION OF PRINCE EDWARD ISLAND.—GENERAL ASPECT OF THE COUNTRY.—COUNTIES, AND LESSER DIVISIONS.—DESCRIPTION OF CHARLOTTE TOWN AND THE PRINCIPAL SETTLEMENTS.

PRINCE EDWARD ISLAND is situated in the Gulf of St. Lawrence, within the latitudes of 46° and $47^{\circ} 10' N.$, and longitudes of 62° and $65^{\circ} W.$ Its length, following a course through the centre of the island, is 140 miles; and its greatest breadth, thirty-four miles. It is separated from Nova Scotia by Northumberland Strait, which is only nine miles broad between Cape Traverse and Cape Tormentine. Cape Breton lies within twenty-seven miles of the east point; and Cape Ray, the nearest point of Newfoundland, is 125 miles distant. The distances from Charlotte Town to the following places are—to the Land's End, England, 2280 miles; to St. John's, Newfoundland, 550 miles; to St. John's, New Brunswick, by sea, 360 miles, and across the peninsula of Nova Scotia, 135 miles; to Quebec, 580 miles; to Halifax, through the



Gut of Canso, 240 miles, and by Pictou, 140 miles ; to Miramichi, 120 miles ; to Pictou, 40 miles.

In coming within view of Prince Edward Island, its aspect is that of a level country, covered to the water's edge with trees, and the outline of its surface scarcely curved with the appearance of hills. On approaching nearer, and sailing round its shores (especially on the north side), the prospect becomes interesting, and presents small villages, cleared farms, red headlands, bays, and rivers which pierce the country ; sandhills covered with grass ; a gentle diversity of hill and dale, which the cleared parts open to view, and the undulation of surface occasioned by small lakes or ponds, which from the sea appear like so many valleys.

On landing, and travelling through the country, its varied, though not highly romantic, scenery, and its agricultural and other improvements, attract the attention of all who possess taste for rural beauties. Owing to the manner in which it is intersected by various branches of the sea, there is no part at a greater distance than eight miles from the ebbing and flowing of the tide.

It abounds with streams and springs of the purest water ; and, in digging wells, no instance of being disappointed in meeting with good water has occurred. There are no mountains in the island. A chain of hills intersects the country between Desable and Grenville Bay ; and, in different parts, the lands rise to moderate heights ; but, in general, the surface of the island may be considered as deviating no more from the level than could be wished for the purpose of agriculture.

Almost every part affords agreeable prospects and

beautiful situations. In summer and autumn, the forests exhibit rich and splendid foliage, varying from the deep green of the fir to the lively tints of the birch and maple; and the character of the scenery, at these seasons, displays a smiling loveliness and teeming fertility.

The island is divided into three counties, these again into parishes, and the whole subdivided into sixty-seven townships, containing about 20,000 acres each. The plot of a town, containing about 400 building lots, and the same number of pasture lots, are reserved in each county. These are, George Town, in King's County; Charlotte Town, in Queen's County; and Prince Town, in Prince County.

Charlotte Town, the seat of government, is situated on the north bank of Hillsborough river, near its confluence with the rivers Elliot and York. Its harbour is considered one of the best in the Gulf of St. Lawrence. The passage into it leads from Northumberland Strait to the west of Point Prime, between St. Peter's and Governor's Islands, up Hillsborough Bay, to the entrance of the harbour. Here its breadth is little more than half a mile, within which it widens, and, forming a safe, capacious basin, then branches into three beautiful and navigable rivers. The harbour is commanded by different situations that might easily be fortified, so as to defend the town against any ordinary attack by water. At present, there is a battery near the barracks, in front of the town; another on Fanning Bank; and a block-house, with some cannon, on the western point of the entrance.

Charlotte Town stands on ground which rises gently from the banks of the river, and contains about 360 dwelling-houses, and about 3500 inhabit-

ants. The plan of the town is regular; the streets broad, and intersect each other at right angles; five or six vacancies are reserved for squares; and many of the houses lately built have a lively and pleasing appearance. The court house — in which the Courts of Chancery, as well as the Court of Judicature, are held, and in which the Legislative Assembly also sit — the Episcopal church, the New Scotch church, and the Catholic and Methodist chapels, are the only public buildings. The barracks are pleasantly situated near the water, and a neat parade or square occupies the space between those of the officers and privates. The building lots are eighty-four feet in front, and run back 160 feet. To each of these a pasture lot of twelve acres was attached in the original grants; and there was formerly a common, lying between the town and pasture lots, which, however, the Lieutenant-Governor Fanning found convenient to grant away in lots to various individuals.

On entering and sailing up the harbour, Charlotte Town appears to much advantage, with a clean, cheerful, and prepossessing aspect, and much larger than it in reality is. This deception arises from its occupying an extensive surface in proportion to the number of houses, to most of which large gardens are attached.

Few places offer more agreeable walks, or prettier situations, than those in the vicinity of Charlotte Town. Among the latter, Spring Park, St. Avard's, the seat of the late Attorney-General, Mr. Johnston; Fanning Bank, on which his excellency Governor Ready has made great improvements, and some

farms lying between the town and York river, are conspicuous.

On the west side of the harbour lies the Fort, or Warren Farm. This is perhaps the most beautiful situation on the island; and the prospect from it embraces a view of Charlotte Town, Hillsborough river for several miles, part of York and Elliot rivers, a great part of Hillsborough Bay, Governor's Island, and Point Prime. A small valley and pretty rivulet wind through the middle of its extensive clearings; and the face of this charming spot is agreeably varied into gently rising grounds, small vales, and level spaces. When the island was taken, the French had a garrison and extensive improvements in this place; and here the commandant chiefly resided. Afterwards, when the island was divided into townships, and granted to persons who were considered to have claims on government, this tract was reserved for his Majesty's use. Governor Patterson held possession of it while on the island, and expended a considerable sum in its improvement.

The late Abbé de Calonne (brother to the famous financier) afterwards obtained the use and possession of this place, during his residence on the island; and since then, the family of the late General Fanning have by some means obtained a grant of this valuable property.*

* There has been much said about the claim of right to this property; and a wish not to hurt the feelings of private individuals prevents me from detailing particulars contained in original documents which I possess. I will, however, assert, that no grant of this property was made to M. de Calonne; but I believe he was offered it as an asylum for himself and a number of French refugees. He had, however, too much ambition to retreat like a hermit from the

During summer and autumn, the view from Charlotte Town is highly interesting. The blue mountains of Nova Scotia appearing in the distance; a long vista of the sea, through the entrance of the harbour, forming, with the basin, and part of Elliot, York, and Hillsborough rivers, a fine branching sheet of water; the distant farms, partial clearings, grassy glades, intermingled with trees of various kinds, but chiefly the birch, beech, maple, and spruce fir, combine to form a landscape that must please even the most scrupulous of picturesque tourists.

No part of the island could have been more judiciously selected for its metropolis, than that which has been chosen for Charlotte Town. It is situated almost in the centre of the country, and of easy access, either by water, or by the different roads leading to it from the settlements.

Hillsborough river enters the country in a north-easterly direction. The tide flows twenty miles farther up than Charlotte Town; and three small rivers branch off to the south. Excellent lands, fine farms, and thriving settlements appear on each shore.

The scenery at and near the head of this river is rich and pretty. Mount Stewart, the property and present residence of John Stewart, Esq., late paymaster to the troops at Newfoundland, is a most charming spot; and the prospect from the house, which stands

great world; and his grand purpose at the time, was to plan and effect a counter-revolution in France. I have by me several letters, written by his brother the Abbé, while on the island, to official persons there at the same time, which throw much light on this subject.

on a rising ground, about half a mile from the river, is truly beautiful. Downwards, the view commands several windings of the Hillsborough, and part of the Pisquit river; the edges of each are fringed with marsh grass, and fertile farms range along the banks, while trees of majestic birch, beech, and maple, growing luxuriantly on the south side, and spruce-fir, larch, beech, and poplar on the north, fill up the back-ground. Upwards, the meandering river, on which one may now and then see passengers crossing in a log canoe, or an Indian, with his family, paddling along in a bark one, together with a view of the large Catholic chapel at St. Andrew's, the seat of the Catholic bishop*, and the surrounding farms and woods, form another agreeable landscape.

York river penetrates the island in a north-westerly course, the tide flowing about nine miles up. On each side there is a straggling settlement; and many of the inhabitants have excellent farms, with a considerable portion of the land under cultivation.

Elliot river branches off nearly west from Charlotte Town harbour, the tide flowing about twelve miles up. A number of small streams fall into this river; and the lands on both sides exhibit beautiful farms, with rather a thickly settled population. The scenery about this river has as much of the romantic character as is to be met with in any part of the island.

Tryon is situated about twenty miles west of Charlotte Town, nearly opposite to Bay de Verts, in

* The Right Reverend Æneas M'Eacheran, titular Bishop of Rosen, an excellent and venerable character, equally esteemed by the members of every religious profession in the colony.

Nova Scotia. It is one of the most populous, and considered the prettiest village on the island. A serpentine river winds through it; on each side of which are beautiful farms. The tide flows up about two miles; but the harbour will only admit of small schooners and boats, it having a dangerous bar at the entrance: extensive clearings were made here when possessed by the French.

Bedeque is situated on the south-west part of the island, about eighteen miles from Tryon. It is populously settled on the different sides of the two rivers into which the harbour branches. The harbour is well sheltered by a small island, near which ships anchor and load. There are two or three ship-building establishments here; and it has for some time been a shipping port for timber.

Egmont Bay lies to the west of Bedeque. It is a large open bay, sixteen miles broad from the west point to Cape Egmont, and about ten deep. Perceval, Enmore, and two other small rivers, fall into it; on the borders of which are excellent marshes. There is no harbour within this bay for large vessels; and as the shoals lie a considerable distance off, it is dangerous for strangers to venture in, even with small vessels. The inhabitants are chiefly Acadian French, who live in three small thriving villages, on the east side of the bay. The whole population consists only of thirty-nine families.*

* Coming down the Gulf of St. Lawrence, from the Bay de Chaleur, in a large whale boat, we were driven into this bay, but could not approach within a quarter of a mile of the shore, in consequence of its being there lined by a succession of narrow sand bars, with channels about four feet deep between them. An Acadian, nearly one hundred years old, came out to us on horse-

Cascumpeque is about sixteen miles north from Richmond Bay, and twenty-four miles from the north cape of the island. Its harbour is safe and convenient. The lands are well adapted for agriculture; and this place, by its advantageous situation, is well calculated for extensive fishing establishments. The population consists of Acadian French, and some English families; and the stores, houses, &c., of Mr. Hill, the proprietor of the surrounding valuable and fertile lands, on the beautiful point at the harbour's entrance, are most conveniently situated for the trade and fisheries of the Gulf of St. Lawrence.

Prince Town (or, more properly, the point of a

back, and carried us, one at a time, behind him on the horse to the shore. We met with great hospitality among the simple Acadians. I stopped in the old patriarch's house; and the bed in which the priest, who visited the village twice a year, slept, was allotted to me.

There were none except the venerable Acadian and his wife living in the house. He laboured daily in the fields; and she not only frequently assisted him, but cooked, washed, and made and mended his clothes. He gave me much information about the early condition of the island, as he was born on it, and was present when it surrendered to the English, in 1758. Talking of himself, he said, "I am the father of every family" (twenty-four at that time) "in the village; for there is not one of those houses in which I have not either a son, daughter, grandson, or grand-daughter married; and I have also several great-grand-children. Look at my old wife and me," said he, "now living alone, as we were when first married. We need not work, it is true, for our children would willingly provide us plenty, even if we had not money laid by. But we know that, if we did not work, we would soon die. Besides, we are in good health and strong, and therefore it would be a great sin to be idle. Neither of us were scarcely ever sick. I never had a headach, and I never took physic in my life." This man and his wife are, I believe, both still living.

peninsula so called) is situated on the south side of Richmond Bay, and on the north side of the island. There are no houses, however, erected on the building lots; and the pasture lots have long since been converted into farms, which form a large straggling settlement.

Darnley Basin lies between Prince Town and the point of Allanby, which forms the south side of the entrance to Richmond Bay. Along Allanby Point, and round the basin, a range of excellent farms extends, some of which stretch across the point, and have two water fronts, one on the basin, the other on the gulf shore.

The district of Richmond Bay, called by the French Malpeque, and still generally known by that name, comprehends a number of settlements, the principal of which (after Prince Town and Darnley Basin) are, Ship-Yard, Indian River, St. Eleanor's, Bentinck River, Grand River, and the village along the township No. 13.

Richmond Bay is ten miles in depth, and nine miles in breadth. The distance across the isthmus, between the head of this bay and Bedeque, on the opposite side of the island, is only one mile.

There are six islands lying within or across the entrance of Richmond Bay; and its shores are indented with numerous coves, creeks, and rivers. It has three entrances, formed by the islands, but the easternmost only will admit shipping. This place is conveniently situated for cod and herring fisheries, and was resorted to by the New England fishermen before the American Revolution. During the last twenty years, several cargoes of timber have been

exported from this port; and a number of ships and brigs have been built here for the English market.

The inhabitants of Richmond Bay are principally Scotch; many of whom, or their parents, emigrated along with Judge Stewart's family, in 1771, from Cantyre, in Scotland. They retain most of the habits, customs, and superstitions, then prevalent in their native country; so much so, that, in mixing with them, I have heard old people, who remembered the amusements common at Christmas, Hallowe'en, and other occasions, fifty years ago, say, they could fancy themselves carried back to that period. The old music, the old songs, the old tales of Covenanters and Papistry, the ghost stories of centuries past, are often heard in this district; and I must also add, that I have seen, at the Prince Town Kirk, and in its immediate vicinage, striking delineations of some of the most highly-coloured pictures in the Holy Fair of Burns. I may here observe, generally, that customs and manners, which are nearly forgotten in Scotland, have become domiciliated in this district, and in some other parts of the island.* A few English families,

* I have frequently heard many of the old settlers declare their belief in the power of witches, and the influence of what they term an "evil eye," in such cases as being offered a fair price for a horse or cow, and refusing it, and the animal dying, or some accident happening to it soon after. When their cows give less milk than usual, it is not uncommon to impute the cause to the infernal agency of some unlucky old woman.

Several years ago, one of the settlers went to a magistrate and lodged a complaint against his neighbour, alleging that he was guilty of witchcraft. The magistrate was silly enough, but probably through ignorance, to summon the accused man before him, who was, however, declared innocent of holding any intercourse with his Satanic majesty. The man insisted on a written statement from the magistrate to that effect, which, as was related to me by a very

and a great number of Irish, are settled among the other inhabitants at Richmond Bay. The Irish settlers were previously generally employed in the Newfoundland fisheries.

At St. Eleanor's there was formerly a populous settlement of Acadian French. Some difficulties about the tenures of their lands occasioned them to abandon the place, and settle in other parts of the island.

The inhabitants of Richmond Bay are, generally speaking, a moral and orderly people. The majority profess the Presbyterian faith; and their clergymen are in connection with the synod of Pictou. At Prince Town, where the Reverend Mr. Keir, a man of exemplary piety and sincerity of character, has officiated for about twenty years, there is a very respectable kirk, and a grammar-school; and there are two other kirks on the opposite side of the bay. At St. Eleanor's, there is a church erected for the Reverend Mr. Jenkins, who has since removed to Charlotte Town. The Scotch Highlanders and the French Acadians have also Catholic chapels.

respectable gentleman in the colony, ended in a kind of accidental rhyme, and in the following words :

" Of witchcraft he's as free
As man can be.
William M'Kie, J. P."

An old man at Richmond Bay, who gave out that he was gifted with the second sight, was so far infatuated, that, being on the shore on a calm day in summer, near where a young man at the time had turned over in a broken canoe, quite within the reach of this old man to save him, he calmly allowed him to drown, in consequence, as he said, of a supernatural sight, which his " gift " had enabled him to perceive a few days before.

On Lennox Island, within Richmond Bay, the Indians, who are of the once numerous Micmac tribe, and profess the Roman Catholic religion, have a chapel and burying-place. This island, where their chief has a house, is their principal rendezvous; they assemble here about midsummer, on which occasion they meet their priest, or the bishop, who hears confessions, administers baptisms, marries those who are inclined to enter into that state, and makes other regulations for their conduct during the year. After remaining here a few weeks, the greater number resume their accustomed and favourite roving life, and wander along the shores, and through the woods of the neighbouring countries.

New London, or the district of Grenville Bay, includes the settlements round the bay, and on the rivers that fall into it, and those at the ponds, between the harbour and Allanby Point. On the east lies the very pretty settlement called Cavendish. The harbour of New London will not admit vessels requiring more than twelve feet water; otherwise, it is safe and convenient. It is formed by a ridge of sandy downs, stretching from Cavendish, four miles across the mouth of Grenville Bay, until it contracts the entrance on the west side to half a mile. The bar is dangerous; several vessels have been lost on it, but the crews have never perished.

Cape Tryon, three miles to the north, shelters the bar during north-westerly winds. The lands on the west side of this harbour have long been cultivated; and formerly there were some extensive establishments erected here for the purposes of carrying on the fisheries, but circumstances occurred which prevented their prosperity.

The situation and beauty of the lands here are equal, if not superior, to any spot on this side of the island. I never even fancied a more delightful walk than along the greensward, and among the clumps of wood, that extend from the west side of this harbour to Cape Tryon. The shore is indented with coves and beaches, which are separated again by high perpendicular cliffs. We have also a broad view of the ocean, in all its states of impetuous turbulence, gentle motion, or smooth serenity; and the charming beauty of the country, in the picturesque features of which, woods with luxuriant foliage, cultivated farms, and high sandy downs, covered with green grass, are conspicuous.

Harrington, or Grand Rustico Bay, has two entrances, and a harbour for small brigs and schooners. Here are two villages, inhabited by Acadian French. The surrounding parts of the bay, with Whately and Hunter Rivers, have, within the last ten or twelve years, become populously settled, by an acquisition of useful and industrious peasantry from different parts of Scotland. There is an island lying across between the two entrances, part of which is covered with wood, and the rest, about three miles in extent, forms sandy downs, on which grows a sort of strong bent grass. On the west side of the harbour, there are on the point several buildings, erected in 1814 by one Le Sueur, who called himself a French refugee. He began a fishery, which he carried on until the fall of that year, and then absconded in a schooner, which he had previously purchased, but not paid for. He left, very adroitly, several people to whom he was much in debt; but the property he had in this place was, under judicious management, quite sufficient to

pay them all. It was never discovered what this man was. Some considered him a spy of Napoleon. He had certainly the talents and address to conceal his own purposes; and his insinuating and genteel manners made him very popular. He even had a commission as captain in the militia given him by the governor.

On Hunter river, which falls into Harrington Bay, a very flourishing settlement, named New Glasgow, was planted in 1819 by Mr. Cormack, the Newfoundland traveller. The settlers emigrated from the neighbourhood of Glasgow; and they have made extensive clearings and improvements since they were located.

Brackley is one of the most flourishing and pleasantly situated settlements on the island. It lies between Grand Rustico and Stanhope Cove. The inhabitants, who are in easy circumstances, and have all fine farms, which are their own property, are among the most industrious and exemplary people in the colony. It has a harbour for fishing-boats.

Little Rustico, or Stanhope Cove, is esteemed one of the most beautiful settlements on the island. Its situation is agreeable, and the prospects and exposures of many of the extensive farms are delightful. Its distance from Charlotte Town, by a good road across the island, is only eleven miles. The harbour will only admit small vessels.

The inhabitants, however, are not generally in a thriving condition. The facility of reaching Charlotte Town market, with a few trout or fresh herrings, or a dozen or two of eggs, to buy rum and tea, is usually said to be the cause of poverty in this

settlement. They certainly cannot be selling eggs and cultivating their lands at the same time.

Bedford, or Tracaday Bay, is five miles to the eastward of Stanhope Cove. It is a harbour for schooners and small brigs, the entrance to which is strait, and lies at the west end of a narrow ridge of sand-hills, which stretch across from the east side of the bay.*

The inhabitants are chiefly Scotch Highlanders, or their descendants. On the west side of the bay, and from that to Stanhope Cove, there was, when the island surrendered in 1759, a dense population. The late Captain Macdonald of Glenalladale removed to this place in 1772, with a colony of Highlanders, who settled round the harbour. The property still belongs to his family.

Savage Harbour lies a few miles to the eastward of Tracaday. Its entrance is shallow, and will only admit boats. The lands are tolerably well settled, and the inhabitants are chiefly Highlanders. The distance across the island, between this place and Hillsborough River, is about two miles.

The Lake Settlement, situated between Savage Harbour and St. Peter's, is a pretty, interesting place. The farms have extensive clearings, and front on a pond, or lagoon, which has an outlet to the gulf.

St. Peter's is on the north side of the island, about thirty miles to the eastward of Charlotte Town. Its

* The entrances to all the harbours on the north side of the island, are either at the end, or through narrow ridges of sandy downs; — thus, the entrances to the harbours of Cascumpeque, New London, Grand Rustico, and Tracaday, are at the west end of such ridges; and the other harbours, except that of Richmond Bay, have their entrances through similar downs. Strangers are apt to be deceived when approaching these harbours, as they have a general resemblance. It is therefore advisable to have a pilot.

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harbour, owing to a sandy bar across the entrance, will only admit small vessels.* There are a number of settlers on each side of its bay, which is about nine miles long; and the river Morell, falling into it from the south, is a fine rapid stream, frequented annually by salmon. The lands fronting on this bay belong principally to Messrs. C. and E. Worrell, who reside on the property, and, with other improvements, have built granaries, an immense barn, a very superior grist-mill, offices, &c. on the lands occupied by themselves. The lands round the bay and rivers have, however, been most wretchedly managed, although this part of the country was in a very flourishing condition, and well cultivated, when possessed by the French.

Greenwich, situated on a peninsula, between St. Peter's Bay and the Gulf of St. Lawrence, is a charming spot, with extensively cleared lands, once well cultivated. This estate is involved in a Chancery suit, not yet, I believe, decided; and the son of the original complainant died old and grey, five years ago, completely worn out in the cause.

District of the Capes. — This district extends along the north shore of the island, from St. Peter's to the east point. There are no harbours between these two places; but several ponds, or small lakes, inter-

* A most worthy gentleman, but ill calculated, however, for a merchant, owned a brig, which he loaded at Liverpool with salt for St. Peter's. He had lived sufficiently long at the last place to know that nothing but small fishing schooners could pass over the bar; yet he quite overlooked this in his calculation in loading his ship, until he arrived abreast of the harbour, where, fortunately, fine weather favoured him so far as to admit anchoring on the outside for a few days. The ship was then sent to seek for a deeper harbour to unload her cargo — I believe to Gaspé or Quebec.

vene. For a considerable distance back from the gulf shore, the lands are entirely cleared, with the exception of detached spots or clumps of the spruce fir. The inhabitants are principally from the west of Scotland, and from the Hebrides, and their labour has been chiefly applied to agriculture. They raise, even with the old mode of husbandry, to which they tenaciously adhere, valuable crops; and the greater part of the wheat, barley, oats, and pork brought to Charlotte Town is from this district. It has the advantage of having a regular supply of seaweed (various marine weeds) thrown on its shore, which makes excellent manure, particularly for barley.

Colville, Rollo, Fortune, and Boughton Bays are small harbours, with thriving settlements, situated on the south-east of the island, between Three Rivers and the east point. The inhabitants are principally Highlanders and Acadian French.

George Town, or Three Rivers, is situated near the junction of three fine rivers, on the south-east part of the island. Very little has been yet done in order to form a town in this place, although it has often been pointed out as better adapted for the seat of government than Charlotte Town. It has certainly a more immediate communication with the ocean, but it is not so conveniently situated for intercourse with many parts of the island. Its excellent harbour, however, and its very desirable situation for the cod and herring fisheries, will probably, at no very distant period, make it a place of considerable importance. It is well calculated for the centre of any trade carried on within the Gulf of St. Lawrence. The harbour is not frozen over for some time after all the other harbours in the gulf, and it opens earlier in the

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spring. A few hours will carry a vessel from it to the Atlantic, through the Gut of Canso; and sailing vessels can lay their course from thence to Three Rivers with a south-west wind (which prevails in the summer), which they cannot do to Charlotte Town. This harbour lies also more in the track to Quebec, and other places up the gulf. Its access is safe, having a fine broad and deep entrance, free from sand-bars, or, indeed, any danger; and can be easily distinguished by two islands, one on each side. Excellent fishing-grounds lie in its vicinity; and herrings enter it in large shoals, early in May. On Saturday evenings, or on Sunday mornings, the Acadian French fishing shallops come in from the fishing grounds, close to Three Rivers, to pass Sunday within the harbour.

The entrance to Three Rivers Bay is between Boughton and Panmure islands. A sandy beach connects them with the main. Pilots are ready to attend when a signal is hoisted; and, although the channel is broad, and many masters of large ships venture in with the assistance of sounding, it is better to avoid the risk of grounding on some sandy spits. Within the bay there are several harbours; the best is at Montague River.

The settlements contiguous to George Town, on Cardigan, Montague, and Brudnelle rivers, are rapidly extending, and the settlers are directing their attention more to agriculture than formerly. A considerable quantity of timber has, within the last twenty years, been exported from hence; and a number of superior ships have also been built here for the British market. At present, there are two well-established ship-yards, one at Brudnelle Point, where the

French, under Count de Raymond, had an extensive fishery, and some hundreds of acres, now overgrown with trees, under cultivation. The other ship-yard is at Cardigan River. Several large and beautiful vessels have been built at each ; but the late depression in the value of shipping has brought the business of constructing vessels here, as elsewhere, to a stand.

The district of country bordering on Three Rivers must, when populously settled, become, if not the first, one of the most important districts in the colony. Its great natural advantages cannot but eventually secure its prosperity.

Murray Harbour lies between Cape Bear and Three Rivers. It is well sheltered ; but the entrance is intricate, and large ships can only take in part of their cargoes within the bar. Several cargoes of timber have been exported from this place, and a number of excellent ships, brigs, and small vessels, have been built here by Messrs. Cambridge and Sons, whose extensive establishments, mills, ship-yards, &c., have for many years afforded employment to a number of people. The cultivation of the soil has, however, for a long time been neglected ; but an accession of industrious people, who have settled here within the last few years, are making great improvements.

The lands in the townships abutting and adjoining Murray Harbour are very fertile, and extend from Three Rivers to the Earl of Selkirk's property, at Wood Island. There are some fine and beautiful farms fronting on the shores, and some small lagoons, particularly at Gaspereau pond, situated to the eastward of Murray Harbour.*

* At this place there lived lately a most respectable farmer, William Graham. He emigrated about sixty years ago from An-

Belfast. — This district may be said to include the villages of Great and Little Belfast, Orwell, and Point Prime, with the settlements at Pinnette River, Flat River, Belle Creek, and Wood Islands. At the time the island was taken from the French, a few inhabitants were settled in this district; but from that period, the lands remained unoccupied until the year 1803, when the late enterprising Earl of Selkirk arrived on the island with 800 emigrants, whom he settled along the fronts of the townships that now contain those flourishing settlements. His Lordship brought his colony from the Highlands and Isles of Scotland, and by the convenience of the tenures under which he gave them lands, and by persevering industry on their part, these people have arrived at more comfort and happiness than they ever experienced before. The soil in this district is excellent; the population has increased in number, with the accession of friends and relatives chiefly, and the natural increase of the first colonists, to nearly 4000. They raise heavy crops, the overplus of which they carry either to Charlotte Town, Pictou, Halifax, or Newfoundland.

His Lordship observes, in his able work on emigration: — "I had undertaken to settle these lands with emigrants whose views were directed towards

nandale, and by industry secured plenty and comfort on the large farm, which he had occupied for fifty years. His mind was a sort of chronological register, and he was one of the best tellers of a plain story I ever knew. The most detailed, and the most interesting, except Sir Walter Scott's, account of the "Battle of Dryfe Sands," was related to me by "honest Willie Graham," as he was usually called. I have just learned that my excellent acquaintance died soon after I left America.

the United States; and, without any wish to increase the general spirit of emigration, I could not avoid giving more than ordinary advantages to those who should join me. * * * To induce people to embark in the undertaking was, however, the least part of my task. The difficulties which a new settler has to struggle with are so great and various, that in the oldest and best-established colonies they are not to be avoided altogether. * * * Of these discouragements the emigrant is seldom fully aware. He has a new set of ideas to acquire: the knowledge which his previous experience has accumulated can seldom be applied; his ignorance as to the circumstances of the country meet him on every occasion. * * * The combined effect of these accumulated difficulties is seen in the long infancy of most new-settled countries. * * * I will not assert that the people I took there [to Prince Edward Island] have totally escaped all difficulties and discouragements; but the arrangements for their accommodation have had so much success, that few, perhaps, in their situation have suffered less, or have seen their difficulties so soon at an end. * * * These people, amounting to about eight hundred persons, of all ages, reached the island in their ships, on the 7th, 9th, and 27th August, 1803. It had been my intention to come to the island some time before any of the settlers, in order that every requisite preparation might be made. In this, however, a number of untoward circumstances occurred to disappoint me; and, on arriving at the capital of the island, I learned that the ship of most importance had just arrived, and the passengers were landing at a place previously appointed for the purpose. * * * I lost no time in proceeding to the

spot, where I found that the people had already lodged themselves in temporary wigwams (tents composed of poles and branches).

"The settlers had spread themselves along the shore for the distance of about half a mile, upon the site of an old French village, which had been destroyed and abandoned after the capture of the island by the British forces in 1758. The land, which had formerly been overgrown with wood, was overgrown again with thickets of young trees, interspersed with grassy glades. * * * I arrived at the place late in the evening, and it had then a very striking appearance. Each family had kindled a large fire near their wigwams, and round these were assembled groups of figures, whose peculiar national dress added to the singularity of the surrounding scene; confused heaps of baggage were everywhere piled together beside their wild habitations; and by the number of fires the whole woods were illumined. At the end of the line of encampment I pitched my own tent, and was surrounded in the morning by a numerous assemblage of people, whose behaviour indicated that they looked to nothing less than a restoration of the happy days of clanship. * * * These hardy people thought little of the inconvenience they felt from the slightness of the shelter they put up for themselves."

His Lordship then states numerous difficulties attending the location of the emigrants, and then proceeds: — "I could not but regret the time which had been lost; but I had satisfaction in reflecting that the settlers had begun the culture of their farms, with their little capitals unimpaired. * * * I quitted the island in September, 1803; and, after an extensive tour on the continent of America, returned at

the end of the same month in the following year. It was with the utmost satisfaction I then found that my plans had been followed up with attention and judgment. * * * I found the settlers engaged in securing the harvest which their industry had produced. There were three or four families who had not gathered a crop adequate to their own supply ; but many others had a considerable superabundance."

I had, while in America, frequent opportunities of knowing the condition of these colonists ; and, if possessing land, good houses, large stocks of cattle, abundance of provisions, and a large overplus of produce to sell for articles of convenience, together with being free of debt, be considered to constitute independent circumstances, they are certainly in that state.

There are a number of other, though lesser, settlements. The principal of these are — Tigniche, near the North Cape, the inhabitants of which are Acadian French ; Crapaud and De Sable, both thriving fast, between Hillsborough Bay and Tryon ; Cape Traverse and Seven Mile Bay, between Tryon and Bedeque ; and the Acadian settlement at Cape Egmont. Settlements are also forming along the roads, particularly in the vicinity of Charlotte Town. The only tract of extent, bordering on the coast, without settlers, is that lying between the North Cape and the West Point. There are several fine streams and ponds in this district ; and the soil is rich, and covered with lofty trees. Its only disadvantage is, having no harbour ; but it is always safe to land in a boat, if the wind does not blow strongly on the shore. Fish of various kinds swarm along the coast.

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CHAP. II.

CLIMATE. — SOIL. — NATURAL PRODUCTIONS. — WILD ANIMALS,
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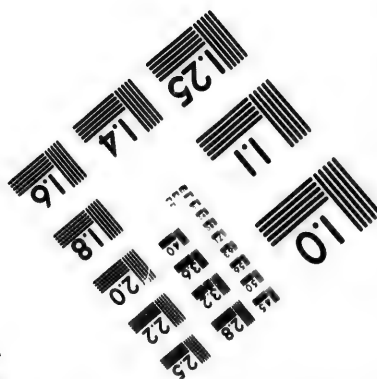
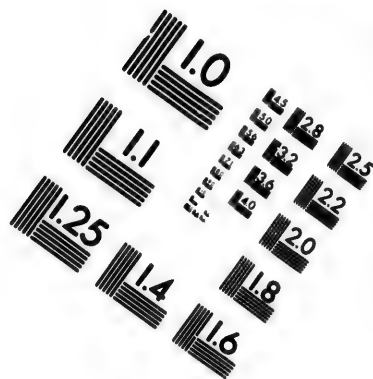
THE climate of Prince Edward Island, owing to its lying within the Gulf of St. Lawrence, partakes, in some measure, of the climate of the neighbouring countries ; but the difference is greater than any one who has not lived in the colony would imagine.

In Lower Canada, the winter is nearly two months longer, the frosts more severe, and the snows deeper ; while the temperature, during summer, is equally hot. In Nova Scotia, New Brunswick, and Cape Breton, the frosts are equally severe, the transitions from one extreme of temperature to another more sudden, and fogs frequent along those parts that border on the Atlantic and Bay of Fundy.

The atmosphere of this island is noted for being free of fogs. A day foggy throughout seldom occurs during a year ; and in general not more than four or five that are partially so. A misty fog appears sometimes on a summer or autumnal morning, occasioned by the exhalation of the dew that falls during night, but which the rising sun quickly dissipates.

The absence of fogs in this colony has been variously accounted for, but never yet from what I conceive the true cause ; and which I consider to be, in the first place, that the waters which wash the shores of the island do not come in immediate contact with





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those of a different temperature ; and, secondly, that Cape Breton and Newfoundland, both of which are high and mountainous, lie between it and the Atlantic. These islands arrest the fogs, which would otherwise be driven by strong easterly winds from the banks to Prince Edward Island. Fogs are, it is true, occasionally met with at the entrance of the river St. Lawrence ; but these are produced by known natural causes. A strong current of cold water runs from the Atlantic through the strait of Belle Isle ; its principal stream passes between the island of Anticosti and the coast of Labrador, and coming in contact with the warmer stream of the St. Lawrence, a fog is produced.

Prince Edward Island lies so far within the deep bay, formed between Cape Rosier and the north cape of Cape Breton, that the waters which surround it do not mix within many miles of its shores with those of the Atlantic.

As regards the salubrity of the island, it is agreed by all who have lived any time on it, and have compared its climate with that of other countries, that there are few places where health is enjoyed with less interruption. What Mr. Stewart, in his excellent account, at the time it was written, of Prince Edward Island, says of the climate, is, I think, strictly true : " The fevers and other diseases of the United States are unknown here ; no person ever saw an intermittent fever produced on the island, nor will that complaint, when brought here, ever stand above a few days against the influence of the climate. I have seen thirty Hessian soldiers, who brought this disease from the southward, and who were so much reduced thereby as to be carried on shore in blankets,

all recover in a very short time ; few of them had any return or fit of the complaint after the first forty-eight hours from their landing on the island.

“ Pulmonary consumption, which is so common and so very destructive in the northern and central states of America, is not often met with here. Probably ten cases of this complaint have not occurred since the settlement of the colony. Colds and rheumatisms are the most common complaints : the first generally affect the head more than the breast, and the last seldom prove mortal. A very large proportion of the people live to old age, and then die of no acute disease, but by the gradual decay of nature.

“ Deaths between twenty and fifty years of age are but few, when compared with those of most other countries ; and I trust I do not exaggerate the fact, when I state, that not one person in fifty (all accidents included) dies in a year. It follows, from what has been said, that mankind must increase very fast in such a climate ; accordingly, large families are almost universal. Industry always secures a comfortable subsistence, which encourages early marriages : the women are often grandmothers at forty ; and the mother and daughter may each be seen with a child at the breast at the same time.”*

The diseases at present commonly known, are usually the consequence of colds or intemperance, if we except consumptions, which I have observed in most cases to be constitutional ; and the young women born on the island appear to be more subject

* Account of Prince Edward Island, by John Stewart, Esq., late paymaster to the forces at Newfoundland. London, 1806.

to this malady than those who remove to the colony from Europe. The climate is decidedly salubrious. Bilious complaints are unknown; and I have conversed with several people who were affected with ill health previous to their settling in this colony, who afterwards enjoyed all the comforts of an unimpaired constitution.

The absence of damp weather and noxious exhalations, those certain generators of disease; and the island having no lakes, or few ponds of fresh water, while it is at the same time surrounded by the sea, will account satisfactorily for the excellence of its climate.

The general structure of the soil is, first, a thin layer of black or brown mould, composed of decayed vegetable substances; then, to the depth of a foot, or more, a light loam prevails, inclining in some places to a sandy, in others to a clayey character; below which, a stiff clay, resting on sandstone, predominates. The prevailing colour of both soil and stone is red. To this general character of the soil there are but few exceptions: these are the bogs or swamps, which consist either of a soft spongy turf, or a deep layer of wet black mould, resting on white clay, or sand.

In its natural state, the quality of the soil may be readily ascertained by the description of wood growing on it; it being richest where the maple, beech, black birch, and a mixture of other trees, grow, and less fertile where the pine, spruce, larch, and other varieties of the fir tribe, are most numerous.

The soil is fertile; and there is scarcely a stone on the surface of the island that will impede the progress of the plough. There is no limestone nor gypsum, nor has coal yet been discovered, although

indications of its existence are produced. Iron ore is by many thought to abound, but no specimens have as yet been discovered, although the soil is in different places impregnated with oxide of iron; and a sediment is lodged in the rivulets running from various springs, consisting of metallic oxides.

Red clay, of superior quality for bricks, abounds in all parts of the island; and a strong white clay, fit for potter's use, is met with, but not in great quantities. A solitary block of granite presents itself occasionally to the traveller; but two stones of this description are seldom found within a mile of each other.

Volney and some other writers have remarked, that the granitic base of the Alleghany mountains extends so far as to form the rocky stratum of all the countries of America lying to the eastward of them. To this, as a general rule, there is more than one exception. The base of Prince Edward Island, which is sandstone, appears to extend under the bed of Northumberland Strait, into the northern part of Nova Scotia, and into the eastern division of New Brunswick, until it is lost in its line of contact with the granitic base of the Alleghanies, about the river Nipisighit.

Some of the bogs, or swamps, scarcely produce any thing but shrubs and moss: these are rather dry, and resemble the turf bogs in Ireland. Others again are wet, spongy, and deep, producing dwarf species of alder, long grass, and a variety of shrubs. Cattle are frequently, in the spring of the year, lost in the swamps. Such portions of these lands as have been drained, form excellent meadows.

There are other tracts called barrens, some of

which, in a natural state, produce nothing but dry moss or a few shrubs. The soil of these spots is a light brown, or whitish sand. Some of the lands formerly covered with pine forests, now incline to this character. Both swamps and barrens, however, bear but a small proportion to the whole surface of the island; and as they all may, with judicious management, be improved advantageously, it cannot be said that there is an acre of the whole incapable of cultivation. The marshes, which are overflowed by the tide, produce a strong nutritious grass, and, when dyked, yield heavy crops of wheat or hay.

Large tracts of the original pine forests have been destroyed by fires, which have raged over the island at different periods. In these places white birches, spruce-firs, poplars, and wild cherry-trees, have sprung up. The largest trees of this second growth that I have seen, were from twelve to fifteen inches diameter, and growing in places laid waste by a tremendous fire, which raged in 1750. At its first settlement, and previous to the destruction, by fire, at different periods, of much valuable timber, the island was altogether covered with wood, and contained forests of majestic pines. Trees of this genus still abound, but not in extensive groves; and from the quantity which has been exported to England, there is not more pine at present growing on the island than will be required by the inhabitants for house and ship-building, and other purposes. The principal kinds of other trees are spruce-fir, hemlock, beech, birch, and maple, growing in abundance; oak, elm, ash, and larch, are not plentiful, and the quality of the first very inferior.

Poplars, of great dimensions, are plentiful; white

cedar is found growing in the northern parts. Many other kinds of trees are met with, such as dogwood, alder, wild cherry-tree, Indian pear-tree, &c., and most of the shrubs, wild fruits, herbs, and grasses, common to other parts of British North America. Sarsaparilla, ginseng, and probably many other medicinal plants, are plentiful in all parts of the island. Among the wild fruits, raspberries, strawberries, cranberries, which are very large, blueberries, and whortleberries are astonishingly abundant.

The principal native quadrupeds are, bears, loup-cerviers, foxes, hares, otters, musquashes, minks, squirrels, weasels, &c.

For many years after the settlement of the colony, bears were very numerous, and exceedingly annoying and injurious to the inhabitants, destroying their black cattle, sheep, and hogs. They are now much reduced in number, and rarely met with. A premium for their destruction, as well as that of the loup-cervier, is granted by the colonial government.

The loup-cervier still commits great ravages among the sheep; and several of these innocent creatures during a night, by a loup-cervier, which only sucks the blood, leaving the flesh untouched.

Foxes and hares are numerous. Otters, martens, and musk-rats, being so long hunted on account of their skins, have become scarce. The flying, brown, and striped varieties of squirrels are plentiful. Weasels and ermines are native animals, but very rarely seen.

Formerly, mice were in some seasons so very numerous, as to destroy the greater part of the corn about a week before it ripened. Within the last twenty years, little injury has been done by these

mischievous animals, although they have been known in such swarms, previous to that period, as to cut down whole fields of wheat in one night.

For many years after the settlement of the colony, walruses, or sea-cows frequented different parts along the shores, and the numbers killed were not only considerable, but they afforded a source of advantageous enterprise to the inhabitants. None of these animals have appeared near the shores of the island for thirty years, but are still seen occasionally at the Magdalene Islands, and other places to the northward.

Seals of the description called harbour seal appear in the bays, and round the shores, during summer and autumn; and in the spring immense numbers sometimes come down on the ice from the northward. These are the same kind as the ice seals of Newfoundland.

Most of the birds described in a former chapter frequent this island; and owls, crows, ravens, woodpeckers, partridges, with some others, remain during the whole year.

Partridges are larger, and considered finer, than in England. A provincial law prohibits the shooting of them between the first of April and the first of September. Wild pigeons arrive in great flocks in summer from the southward, and breed in the woods.

Wild geese appear in March, and, after remaining five or six weeks, proceed to the northward to breed, from whence they return in September, and leave for the southward in November. Brent geese and wild ducks are plentiful.

There are no game laws, unless the provincial act for preserving partridges during four months be

considered such ; nor does it appear that persons can be hindered from shooting, even on lands under cultivation, unless by proceeding against them as trespassers.

The only reptiles known on the island are brown and striped snakes, neither of which are venomous, and the red viper, toad, bull-frog, and green-frog. There are several beautiful varieties of the butterfly, which, with locusts, grasshoppers, crickets, horned-beetle, bug-adder, black fly, adder fly, horse fly, sand fly, mosquito, ant, horned wasp, humble bee, fire fly, and a numerous variety of spiders, are the principal insects.

Mosquitoes and sand flies are only annoying during the heat of summer, in the neighbourhood of marshes, and in the woods; where the lands are cleared to any extent, they are seldom troublesome.

The varieties of fishes that swarm in the harbours and rivers, or around the shores, and that abound on the different fishing banks in the vicinage of the island, are numerous, each abounding in great plenty, and of the same kind and quality as those already described.

The varieties of shell-fish are oysters, clams, muscles, razor shell-fish, wilks, lobsters, crabs, shrimps, &c.

The oysters are considered the finest in America, and equally delicious as those taken on the English shores. There are two or three varieties, the largest of which is from six to fifteen inches long. There were so many cargoes taken away annually to Quebec and Halifax, that the legislative assembly passed an act, six years ago, prohibiting their export for some time.

Lobsters are very plentiful, and, when in season, excellent.

The kinds of fish usually brought to Charlotte Town market, with which, however, it is but rarely supplied, are cod, haddock, mackerel, herring, salmon, trout, eels, perch, smelts, &c. No market can be more easily or regularly supplied with fish than that of Charlotte Town; yet, from indolence, and the ease with which the labouring classes can procure food from the soil, it is the worst fish-market in the world.

CHAP. III.

AGRICULTURAL PRODUCTIONS. — SEED-TIME. — HARVEST. —
HORNED CATTLE. — SHEEP. — SWINE. — HORSES. — SCOTCH
HIGHLANDERS SLOVENLY FARMERS. — MANNER OF CLEARING
AND CULTIVATING FOREST LANDS. — CONSEQUENCE OF FIRES
IN THE WOODS. — MANURES. — AGRICULTURAL SOCIETY. —
HABITATIONS OF NEW SETTLERS, ETC.

THE excellence of its soil, its climate, and the configuration of its surface adapt the lands of Prince Edward Island more particularly for agriculture than for any other purpose.

All kinds of grain and vegetables raised in England ripen in perfection. Wheat is raised in abundance for the consumption of the inhabitants, and a surplus is exported to Nova Scotia, and, lately, to England. Both summer and winter rye, and buckwheat produce weighty crops; but the culture of these grains is scarcely attended to. Barley and oats thrive well, and are, in weight and quality, equal to any met with in the English markets, and superior to what are produced in the United States.

Beans of all kinds yield plentiful returns. Peas, when not injured by worms, which often happens, thrive well; and turnips are sometimes liable to injury from flies and worms. In no country do parsnips, carrots, beets, mangel-wurzel, or potatoes yield more bountiful crops. Cucumbers, salads, cabbages, cauliflowers, asparagus, and indeed all culinary vegetables common in England, arrive at perfection. Cherries,

plums, damsons, black, red, and white currants ripen perfectly, and are large and delicious. Gooseberries do not always succeed, but probably from improper management.

The apples raised are inferior in quality, but probably from want of attention, as many of the trees planted by the French, previous to the conquest of the island in 1758, are still bearing fruit; and some fine samples of apples are produced by those farmers who have taken pains in rearing the trees.

Indian corn, or maize is occasionally planted, but it does not thrive so well as in New Brunswick or Nova Scotia, nor do I consider it so congenial to the soil.

Flax is raised, of excellent quality, and manufactured by the farmers' wives into linen for domestic use. This article might be cultivated extensively for exportation.

Hemp will grow, but not to the same perfection as in Upper Canada, or some parts of Nova Scotia and New Brunswick.

The principal grasses are timothy, red and white clover, and a kind of soft indigenous upland grass, of which sheep are very fond; also marsh grasses, on which young and dry cattle are fed during the winter months.

As a few cold days and wet weather frequently occur in the latter end of April, or the first week of May, wheat or oats are seldom sown until the first of the latter month. Barley will ripen if sown before the 20th of June, although it is generally sown earlier. Potatoes are planted about the last of May, or before the middle of June, and often later. Turnip seed is sown about the middle of

July; some prefer sowing it the first week in August, in which case the leaves are not so liable to injury from worms. Gardening commences early in May, and generally combines the different departments of fruits, flowers, and vegetables.

Haymaking begins in the latter end of July, and as the weather is commonly very dry at this time, it is attended with little trouble in curing. Hay is sometimes put away under cover, but oftener made up into stacks or ricks. Experienced farmers say, that most of the old settlers dry their hay before they stack it. Barley is reaped in August: there are two varieties of it, five-rowed and two-rowed ears. The wheat and oat harvest commences sometimes before, but generally after the first of September. Some use a cradle for cutting their grain, and afterwards make it up into sheaves and stooks, but the common way is to reap and lay it in sheaves, and then gather and stack it in the same manner as in England.

Potatoes and turnips are left undug until the middle or end of October: the first are generally ploughed up, except on new land, where the hoe alone is used. Parsnips may remain in the ground during winter, and are finer when dug up in spring than at any other period.

Milch cows, and such horses and cattle as require most care, are housed in November; but December is the usual month for housing cattle regularly. Sheep thrive better by being left out all winter; but they require to be fed, and it is necessary to have a shelter without a roof, to guard against the cold winds and snow drift.

Black cattle are generally smaller than in England: a good ox will weigh from eight to nine hundred

pounds, but the common run will not exceed six or seven hundred. The beef is usually very fine and tender.

Sheep thrive remarkably well; but, until lately, very little care was observed in improving the breed. The late Attorney-General, Mr. Johnston, kept a flock of fine sheep, equal to any in England, on his excellently cultivated farm near Charlotte Town; and, since that time, other farmers are following the example, from observing that the quantity of wool they produced was more than double the weight yielded by the common breed. The mutton, however, of the old breed is usually fat and well-flavoured.

Swine seem to thrive here as well as in any country, and the pork brought to Charlotte Town by the farmers is probably equal in general to that met with in the Irish market; but from want of proper care in rearing, and possessing a good breed of pigs, one half the number raised on the island are tall, long-snouted animals, resembling greyhounds nearly as much as they do the better kind of hogs; and when, as they generally are, left during summer to range uncontrolled through the woods, they are as wild and swift as foxes.

The horses are, with few exceptions, small, and capable of performing long journies, and enduring great fatigue, with much spirit. During summer, it is usual to take them off the grass, and ride them the same day thirty or forty miles without feeding, frequently on bad roads, then turn them loose to feed on grass during night, and ride them back on the following day: all this is performed frequently without apparent injury to the animal. The old Canadian breed, originally from Normandy, are the hardest

horses, and seem as if formed for the severe usage they undergo. Their owners take them almost every week during winter to Charlotte Town, twenty or thirty miles, and leave them tied, often without food, to a post or fence for several hours, and return home with them the same night; the horse hungry and sober, but the master rarely in the latter state. I have been told by an old Acadian Frenchman, that for several years after the conquest of the island, a vast number of horses were running in a wild state about the eastern parts. Such horses as are taken good care of, and have been trained, make very agreeable saddle or carriage horses. The breed is likely now to improve fast, from those introduced by Governor Colonel Ready, and this may be said of horned cattle, sheep, and hogs; for when last on the island, I was astonished at the improvement in the horses, cattle, hogs, and sheep exhibited at the agricultural show, and also at the excellence of the wheat, oats, and other produce.

The greater number of farmers, particularly the Highland Scotch, keep by far too many cattle for the quantity of provender they usually have to feed them with during winter. These people think if they can manage to carry their cattle through the winter they are doing well; but the consequence is, that their cattle, especially milch cows, are in such lean condition in spring, that they are not in tolerable order until July. Until milch cows also are prevented from ranging at large, as almost all the cattle are allowed to do, and until they are better fed during winter, one half the quantity of butter and cheese that might be expected, will not be made on the island. Those who keep their cows within enclo-

tures are convinced of this, and the prejudices of the old settlers must necessarily give way to the force of example, set before them by the superior management of many farmers who follow the most approved modes of husbandry and grazing.

Much may also be expected from the exertions of agricultural societies, established during Governor Ready's administration. Cattle shows, and exhibitions of agricultural produce are established. Prizes are given to those who produce the best specimens of each. It is also pleasing to observe the improvement in the mode of cultivating the lands which has spread over the colony during the last few years, and which may be attributed principally to the force of example, set by a few of the old settlers, chiefly the loyalists and Lowland Scotch, and by an acquisition of industrious and frugal settlers from England and Scotland.

The principal disadvantage in an agricultural point of view, connected with this island, Nova Scotia, New Brunswick, and Cape Breton, and, in fact, the only one of any importance, is the length of the winters, which renders it necessary to have a large store of hay for supporting live stock, and which also, from the abrupt opening of spring and summer, abridges the season for sowing and planting. These disadvantages are, however, felt with equal severity in Prussia, and over a great part of Germany, where the people employed in agricultural pursuits form the majority of the inhabitants.

About a ton of hay, with straw for each, taking large and small together, is requisite to winter black cattle properly. The winter season has also many advantages—wood and firing poles are easily brought

from the forests, over the smooth slippery roads made by the frosts and snows, and distances are shortened by the bays and rivers being frozen over. The ground is also considered to be fertilised by deep snows and frosts; and there are few farmers who consider the winter an impediment to agriculture otherwise than the spring opening suddenly upon them, and the astonishing quickness of vegetation, leaving them only five or six weeks for preparing the soil, and sowing and planting. When we consider, however, that the autumn and fall are much finer, and of longer duration than in Europe, and the winter setting in generally much later, the farmers have, in reality, little cause to complain of the seasons, as they have abundant time to plough all the grounds in the fall, which is, at the same time, known to be the most proper season for American tillage.

The common plan of laying out farms in this colony, is in lots containing one hundred acres each, having a front of ten chains, either on the sea-shore, a bay, river, or road, and running one hundred chains back. This plan, from the farms being in strips instead of square blocks, is often objected to; but in new countries it affords the settlers more readily the benefits of roads, shores, and running streams.

When the soil is exhausted by cropping, various manures may be procured and applied. Limestone and gypsum, although not found on the island, are plentiful in Cape Breton and Nova Scotia; but little manure, except stable dung, is ever used. Composts are rarely known; and different manures, that would fertilise the soil, are so much disregarded, that, generally speaking, the cultivation of the soil is conducted in so slovenly a manner that it appears astonishing

how many of the settlers raise enough to support their families. In this island, within many of the bays and rivers, numerous banks of muscle mud abound, which consists of muscles, shells, and mud composed of decayed vegetables and other substances. This forms an extremely rich manure, containing about forty-five parts of the carbonate of lime, and imparts extraordinary fertility for ten or twelve years to the soil. Sea-weed, or ware, which is thrown on the shores, especially on the north side of the island, in great quantities, is another excellent manure, particularly for barley crops; and even the common mud, which abounds in the creeks, may be applied as a manure with advantage.

CHAP. IV.

TRADE.—SHIP-BUILDING.—IMPORTS AND EXPORTS, ETC.

WHEN this island was possessed by the French, the population being unimportant, little trade was carried on by the inhabitants; and the government, aware that its superior natural advantages would drain off most of the settlers at and near Louisburg, discouraged its fisheries, by not allowing them to be carried on, except in one or two harbours. The inhabitants were, in consequence, confined to agriculture.

On the colony being settled by the British, a trade, of no great extent, however, was carried on in the articles of fish, oil, sea-cow skins, and seal-skins, which were exported to Quebec, Halifax, and Boston. The people then engaged in the fisheries were principally Acadian French, who built their small shallops and boats on the island.

As the best fishing banks within the Gulf of St. Lawrence lie in the immediate vicinage of this island, it seems, at first, rather surprising that extensive fisheries have not before this time been established. There have been, it is true, some attempts of the kind made, which, from different causes, have failed. The American revolutionary war affected the first trials, and the others fell through from mismanagement, want of capital, and circumstances peculiar to the natural state of the colony. The last cause might naturally be considered as a decided

advantage over Newfoundland, for carrying on the fisheries, when we discover that it arises from the island producing great plenty of all kinds of provisions for fisheries, abundance of wood for building vessels and boats, and numerous safe and convenient harbours. The fact is, that the prime necessities of life being procured with such ease from the soil, and small vessels being so readily built, for carrying overplus produce from the different harbours to where it is wanted, and for which various articles of luxury are obtained, form the great obstacle at present to the success of fishing establishments. This objection will also continue until the country becomes so populous that a livelihood can be obtained from the sea, with much the same labour, or price of labour, as from the soil; for at present it is out of the question for a merchant who would supply people for fishing voyages, to depend on the industry of those whom he employed or trusted, as is the case in Newfoundland, where the fisheries have so long formed the primary occupation of the inhabitants.

The timber trade has been for many years of some importance, by employing a number of ships and men; but, as regards the prosperity of the colony, which has little timber to spare, it must be considered rather as an impediment to its improvement than an advantage, by diverting the inhabitants from agriculture.

A trade from which the island has derived, and, will probably continue to receive considerable benefit, is that of supplying Newfoundland with schooners for the seal and cod fisheries; and with black cattle, sheep, hogs, poultry, oats, potatoes, turnips, &c.; the returns for which are made either in money, West

India produce, or such other articles as may best answer. Agricultural produce is also exported to Halifax, Miramichi, and other places in Nova Scotia and New Brunswick. Beef, pork, sheep, hams, cheese, oats, potatoes, flour, and fish, are occasionally exported to Bermuda. Wheat and oats have also been exported during the years 1831 and 1832 to England.

The branch of trade in which the largest capital has been invested, and that which has given employment to the greatest number of men, while it has at the same time been of great benefit to the colony, although of none to the merchants engaged in it, was the building of ships for the British market. More than one hundred ships, registering from 100 to 600 tons*, have been built within the last few years in different parts of the island. It must be admitted, that many of these ships have been built by careless and unprincipled workmen; but the greater number are fine substantial vessels, sailing now principally from the ports of London, Liverpool, Bristol, and Plymouth.

The wood of this colony used in ship-building is, if allowed proper time to season, of superior quality, although a most unfair prejudice has been hatched and kept up against it, as well as against that growing in all our American colonies. It is, however, a well-known fact, that vessels built in this island, from fifteen to twenty years ago, are still substantial and

* From 1824 to the end of the year 1831, about 300 ships, brigs, and schooners were built on the island. About 100 of these register from 220 to 600 tons each, and the whole register about 31,000 tons.

tight: this circumstance alone should be sufficient to remove the most inveterate prejudice.

When we view the position of Prince Edward Island, in regard to the countries bordering on the Gulf of St. Lawrence, the excellence of its harbours for fishing stations, and take into account that the whole of its surface may, with little exception, be considered fertile and easily cultivated soil, it does not certainly require the spirit of prophecy to perceive, that unless political arrangements may interfere with its prosperity, it will at no very remote period, or as soon as its population increases to about one hundred thousand inhabitants, become a valuable agricultural as well as commercial country. But before the trade of the island can either flourish or maintain a regular or respectable character, several alterations and improvements must take place. A system ruinous to the cultivators of the soil, and injurious to the credit of the merchants and shopkeepers, grew out of circumstances which might have been, during the early settlement of the colony, in many instances necessary, and perhaps benevolent. This at first was no more than giving credit for a few indispensable articles to emigrants. During the war, it became a systematic business to sell rum, tobacco, tea, and various articles, on credit to the farmer, at enormous advances, which for some years swallowed up the whole fruits of his industry, leaving but a bare subsistence for his family.

I have been repeatedly told that a shopkeeper, who had at that time little opposition in his business, always enquired of a new customer who wanted a gallon of rum, a little tea, or a few gallons of molasses, on credit, if he possessed a cow; and if it

turned out that he did, the fat shopkeeper grunted out, "Hah, well, let him have it." At that time, and long after, when Newfoundland, in consequence of the war, was precariously supplied with fresh meat, a cow was an object of profitable importance to a Charlotte Town shopkeeper.

At length shopkeepers multiplied, and the system of selling goods to the farmers on credit rather increased than diminished. As shopkeepers must raise money to remit, or allow their own credit to end, and as farmers, especially after the war, could not pay them, a list of debts was made out by the shopkeeper, and those under five pounds given to a magistrate to sue for immediately, while the rest were probably given to an attorney to recover. In a country where specie is exceedingly scarce, a vast quantity of property is sacrificed even to satisfy the demand for costs; and it has often happened, that the most respectable and good-natured shopkeepers have, after suing for their debts, had to pay not only the expenses, but to let the debt itself remain over for another year. This last observation is, however, more applicable to those who were in a more general business than mere shopkeeping.

The system of giving credit gave birth to another evil, which combined in itself the elements of scheming, over-reaching, evading the fulfilment of contracts, and petty litigation. This state of things was ruinous to reputable merchants, who had spirit enough to attempt the fisheries, or to conduct business on a general and extensive scale; and when the contracts which people entered into with them, for building vessels, or furnishing cargoes of timber, or indeed any other engagement, were not fulfilled, such was

the condition of justice, that redress was seldom to be had. The merchants engaged in ship-building felt the full weight of all these evils; and the importers of goods must now bear with the difficulties attending payment for the wares they sell, when bills are not to be had, and when the current specie of the island, if it were even plentiful, can only be remitted at a loss of 25 to 30 per cent.*

This state of things must continue until there is at least a sufficient quantity, in value, of agricultural produce and fish, to export as payment of the imports. Very moderate industry, and an honest degree of punctuality, would bring this about. If the proprietors of the lands would take in payment of the rents due them, wheat, oats, and barley, at such a price as would bear the expense of exporting to England, the prosperity, and the trade of the island would be rapidly increased, the rents would be better paid, as there would then be no excuse on the part of the tenant, and the value of the lands would in a very short time be doubled. *Lands, in fact, can never be of value to the proprietors until they take grain in payment for rents. It is even unreasonable and overbearing in landlords to insist on money in a country where no payment but the produce of the soil can be expected.* There is nothing but the raising of sufficient agricultural productions for staple export commodity can ever create any prosperous trade in this colony. Its fisheries can only thrive when it has a dense population, as a subsistence is too easily obtained from the soil to tempt men away to the more laborious business of fishing.

Ship-building, unless it be the building of vessels for

* These remarks apply generally to North America.

the carrying trade of the colony, and a few schooners for the Newfoundland fisheries, is at an end.

The selling of goods on credit to the farmers must be limited, and litigation also discouraged, before trade can thrive, or before spirited men can enter into business with any degree of confidence.

The exports for 1832 are less than during the previous years, occasioned partly by the harvest being later, and the grain not, consequently, thrashed out; and partially by the increased consumption in the colony, by the greater arrival of new settlers.

Imports during the Year 1832.

Brandy, 1,812 gallons	-	-	£443	14	0
Cordage, 6 tons, 15½ cwt., 651 coils, 1 cask	-	-	2,189	18	9
Dry goods, 374 bales, 271 cases, 27 casks,					
15 trunks, 72 boxes, 100 bundles	-	-	19,423	15	4
Nails, 319 bags, 131 casks, 44 kegs, 17 boxes,					
41 cwt.	-	-	1,248	2	10
Molasses, 11,465 gallons	-	-	1,517	19	3
Sail-cloth, 54 bales, four trusses, 175 bolts	-	-	1,123	13	3
Salt, 19,040 bushels	-	-	734	18	10
Stationary, seven cases, two boxes, one parcel			181	9	0
Soap, 476½ boxes	-	-	659	12	4
Sugar, 60 hhds., 15 tierces, 270 barrels,					
35 bags, one drum, seven cwt.	-	-	2,164	5	0
Rum, 69,548 gallons	-	-	8,355	1	6
Tea, 432 chests, 33 boxes, four parcels, 15 lbs.			4,894	12	6
Tobacco, one hhd., one tierce, 271 kegs, six					
boxes, four bundles, 62 lbs.	-	-	1,369	17	10
Wine, 2,919 gallons	-	-	966	3	4
Iron, 38 tons, four cwt., 2,444 bars, 239 bolts,					
114 bundles	-	-	685	14	3
Sundries	-	-	24,109	9	11
Sterling			£70,068	8	11

Exports during the Year 1832.

Oats, 65,747½ bushels	-	-	-	-	£4,188	8	9
Barley, 15,262 ditto	-	-	-	-	1,849	17	6
Wheat, 9,585½ ditto	-	-	-	-	2,566	10	0
Flour, 643¾ barrels	-	-	-	-	819	10	0
Oatmeal, 547 barrels, one puncheon	-	-	-	-	854	5	1
Beef, 57 barrels	-	-	-	-	137	10	0
Pork, 290 barrels, 13 puncheons	-	-	-	-	621	2	6
Dry fish, 1,058 quintals	-	-	-	-	534	0	0
Pickled fish, 302½ barrels	-	-	-	-	255	10	0
Timber, 4,601¼ tons	-	-	-	-	3,643	7	0
Lathwood, 170 cords	-	-	-	-	161	13	6
Spars, 375	-	-	-	-	138	5	0
Staves, 36¾ m.	-	-	-	-	163	6	6
Boards and planks, 1,305,767 feet	-	-	-	-	2,749	16	4
Shingles, 1,445 m.	-	-	-	-	400	15	0
Cattle, 547 head	-	-	-	-	931	10	0
Sheep, 813	-	-	-	-	346	10	0
Hogs, 63	-	-	-	-	33	10	0
Turnips, 2,150 bushels	-	-	-	-	107	10	0
Potatoes, 82,720½ ditto	-	-	-	-	4,100	10	6
Sundries	-	-	-	-	7,144	8	10
				Sterling	-	£91,790	15 0

The balance of trade against the colony will, it is presumed, be made up out of the freight and sales of new ships.

The number of vessels launched during the year amount to 45 ships, brigs, and schooners, registering 4959 tons, valued at the lowest price, 6*l.* per ton, makes 29,754*l.*

2 of these ships registered from 400 to 500 tons.

22 from - - - 100 to 200

15 from - - - 50 to 100

6 under	-	-	50
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CHAP. V.

SOCIETY. — AMUSEMENTS. — PURSUITS OF THE INHABITANTS. —
 ENGLISH SETTLERS. — SCOTCH HIGHLANDERS. — IRISH AME-
 RICAN LOYALISTS. — ACADIAN FRENCH. — MICMAC INDIANS,
 ETC. — RELIGION. — EDUCATION. — ADMINISTRATION OF JUSTICE. — PROSPECTS FOR NEW SETTLERS, ETC.

THE population of Charlotte Town is composed of English, Scotch, and Irish, who have at different times settled on the island, and the descendants of the first settlers, part of whom were American loyalists, the rest emigrants from Great Britain and Ireland. There are scarcely three families in the town that came from the same part of other countries; and there is, consequently, from their education and habits having been dissimilar, a diversity of manners among them, very unlike the sameness in language and habits observed in the lesser towns of the United Kingdom.

During the administration of Governor Patterson, and of his successors, General Fanning and Governor Desbarres, the best circle of society in Charlotte Town was allowed to be both elegant and respectable; and however much the members who composed it might have differed in their views and opinions in regard to the political affairs of the colony, they did not allow either to interfere with public amusements or private hospitality. Indeed, the politeness and attention with which respectable strangers were received became proverbial.

During the course of Governor Smith's long administration, those social and kindly feelings which render society delightful, and which are necessary to make a residence in any place agreeable, unhappily weakened and languished in the same ratio as the number of respectable residents diminished. Some of the leading people left the colony in disgust; others by their deaths left blanks, at that period not readily to be filled up.

The last American war gave animation and vigour to society; and the loyalty of the inhabitants, under many unpleasant circumstances of misrule and overbearing government, manifested particularly on some of the review days at Charlotte Town, was remarkably conspicuous. Several companies of militia went to great expense in providing handsome uniforms; and they also took great pride in acquiring a mastery in military exercises. The artillery company, the cavalry company, and some of the light companies, became remarkably alert in going through their movements. An act of seeming caprice, however, on the part of the governor, which removed their favourite officers, and the order for placing Captain Barrington of the regulars under arrest, apparently for countenancing them, destroyed the pride which animated the militia.

The amusements of Charlotte Town, although not on so extensive a scale, resemble those of Halifax. During winter, assemblies are usual once a month, or oftener. An amateur theatre, very respectably fitted up, affords an opportunity of spending some pleasant hours. Pic-nic parties* are common during summer

* See Note, p. 560.

and winter. Dinner parties were at one time usual, but have not been so much so for some time past. The principal gentlemen of Charlotte Town generally dine together, at one of the hotels, on the anniversaries of the titular saints of each of the three kingdoms, and also during the sittings of the colonial legislature, and of the courts of law. The ice, during winter, frequently affords excellent skating. Shooting and fishing are other sources of amusement; and annual races, near Charlotte Town, have for some time been fairly supported. A public subscription library, on a respectable footing, affords, either to those who read merely for amusement, or to such as wish to keep pace in the acquirement of knowledge with the growing intelligence of the world, a variety of entertaining and standard works. There is also a very well-conducted weekly paper, published at Charlotte Town, and another has lately been established. As the expense of keeping a horse is trifling, almost every housekeeper has one or two; and during winter, it is a favourite amusement among all classes to drive in cabriolets, which are slight open carriages set on runners, which slip easily and rapidly over the snow and ice.

The inhabitants of Charlotte Town support themselves by various means. Those connected with the government offices, custom-house, &c., receive their pay from government; for the colony does not yet, although it soon will have to, pay its civil list.

Many of the inhabitants are engaged in trade; but the most extensive merchants having been ruined by their heavy speculations in ships, the present trade of Charlotte Town is confined to the selling of various kinds of British goods, and West India produce, for

money, or, in the way of barter, for agricultural produce. The other inhabitants follow various kinds of handicraft, or support themselves by keeping taverns, or dram-shops.

When travelling through the settlements, we discover the inhabitants of Prince Edward Island to consist of Englishmen, who, though fewer than any others in number, are found from almost every county in England; Scotchmen, who form more than half of the whole population, from the Highlands, Hebrides, and the southern counties; Irishmen, from different parts of the Emerald Isle; American loyalists; and a few Dutch, Germans, and Swedes. The whole population may be estimated at thirty-five thousand.

The English settlers, although for some time discontented with their condition, are generally found to thrive, particularly those from Yorkshire; and they are much more attentive to in-door comfort and cleanliness than most other new settlers.

The Highland Scotch, particularly those who settled first in the colony, and their descendants, are exceedingly regardless of domestic cleanliness or neatness, while they are at the same time in much better circumstances than they would be in their native country. The Lowland Scotch make probably the best settlers, at least those who have during late years removed to the island may be considered so; and the Perthshire Highlanders, as well as those sent to the colony by the late Earl of Selkirk, may also be classed among the most thriving part of the population. The American loyalists who removed to the island after the revolutionary war are generally very industrious in their occupations; and although fre-

quently, in consequence of following too many pursuits, not so substantial in their means as those who live by farming alone, yet they have, with few exceptions, good houses, and live very comfortably. They are extremely ingenious, building their own houses, are carpenters and joiners, make their own shoes, ploughs, harrows, carts, sledges, cabriolets, &c. The women spin, knit, and weave linens, cottons, and woollen cloth for domestic use.

The Irish emigrants soon better their condition in this colony; but they are certainly, for some time, a less steady class of settlers than any other.

There are about 5000 Acadian French on the island, who are principally the descendants of the French who were settled in Nova Scotia before the conquest of Cape Breton: they profess the Catholic religion. Their priests are educated in Canada; and by their example, as well as precepts, teach morals and propriety to their flocks. These people are not in such easy circumstances as the other inhabitants of the island. Those who confine themselves to agriculture are, it is true, more affluent, perhaps sufficiently so for people in their station, especially when we consider that few of them can either read or write. At the villages of Rustico, they follow so many different pursuits, that they cannot possibly succeed. At one time they are employed building vessels, at another cutting timber in the woods, then for a few weeks farming, then fishing, and too often idling their time at Charlotte Town. It follows, that they are poor, while the Acadians, in other parts of the island, although their mode of husbandry, from which the force of example will not induce them to depart, is

rude and tardy, acquire what renders their condition independent.

The Indians who wander about the colony are now few in number ; probably not more than thirty families are seen on the island. They are part of the remnant of the once numerous Micmac tribe ; profess the Roman Catholic religion ; and have a chapel and burying place, as already observed, on Lennox Island, Richmond Bay.

The inhabitants of the colony, particularly the farmers, are hospitable, kind, and obliging, and, generally speaking, a moral people. Litigation, which the timber business, and the credit given by the tavern-keepers and small shopkeepers, have produced, and the low price of rum, form the sole causes of immorality, and the most baneful evils connected with the island ; and it is much to be regretted, that most of the attorneys have fostered rather than discouraged these causes of iniquity and of any common wretchedness that can be discovered in the colony.

The farmers are employed during winter in attending to their cattle, thrashing out their corn, cutting and hauling home fire-wood for winter use, and a stock of fuel for summer ; these occupations, with many other little matters connected with his farm, house, and markets, engage the constant attention of a managing, industrious man. Those, however, who think they will succeed better by attempting more, go into the woods to hew timber for exportation, or neglect their farms to become carpenters in the ship-yards, which has ruined many.

The farmers' wives and daughters are generally very industrious, decorous, and correct, and strictly domestic and attentive to household duties. They assist

in the labours of the farm during seed-time, hay-making, and harvest; and, during winter, prepare their flax and wool for spinning and knitting, and many of them also weave their home-spun cloth.

Hitherto almost all the farmers have caught the fish required for their own consumption; and it is generally necessary for new settlers to do so: but those who have been some time settled on their farms will find it more profitable to attend altogether to husbandry, and buy the fish they want from others. Formerly a considerable quantity of sugar was manufactured by the inhabitants from the sap of the maple-tree. At present there is scarcely any made except by the Acadians and Indians.

The different denominations of religion that have places of worship are the Church of England, as established by law; the Kirk of Scotland; Anti-burghers, or Seceders from the Kirk of Scotland; Roman Catholics; Methodists, and Baptists. All the members of these professions associate together as neighbours, and frequently attend the places of worship of each other with great good feeling. All religions are free: the Roman Catholics alone were, until lately, precluded from being members of the assembly, or voting at elections; but this disability, happily for the colonies, no longer exists.

The members of the Church of England are not numerous, although those of most other professions attend the service at St. Paul's Church, Charlotte Town. Indeed the right of property in this edifice is considered as equally vested in the members of the Kirk of Scotland, which has hitherto prevented its being consecrated; and the Bishop of Nova Scotia seemed convinced of this being the case, when he

visited this part of his diocese in 1826. There is another English church at St. Eleanor's, a handsome building, erected for the Reverend Mr. Jenkins, who has lately succeeded the late worthy rector of Charlotte Town, the Reverend Mr. Desbrisay, who officiated about forty years, beloved and venerated by all who knew him.

The first place of worship built on the island, directly in connection with the Kirk of Scotland, stands near Pinnette River, in the centre of the flourishing settlement planted by the late Earl of Selkirk. This church was built in 1826; and the exemplary character and ministration of the Reverend Mr. MacLennan, a gentleman of education and ability, who preaches both in Gaelic and English, will preserve or improve the morals of a people brought up in their native country under a due sense of correctness and piety. A large and well-planned church, for a minister of the Kirk of Scotland, has lately been built at Charlotte Town. The congregation which will attend this church, when opened, will be very large. The Antiburghers have ten places of worship; the Methodists about the same number; and the Baptists have two or three.

The Roman Catholics have a large chapel at St. Andrews, eighteen miles from Charlotte Town, where Bishop MacEacheran resides. This venerable pastor has, with the Catholics of this island, those of New Brunswick, Cape Breton, and the Magdalen Islands, under his care. There is also, besides, a handsome chapel at Charlotte Town, and about twelve others in different settlements. It has been frequently asserted in these kingdoms, that the inhabitants of this and other American colonies were in the most deplorable

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want of religious instruction. Such will not, I think, appear, as respects this island, from the above statement; and such is certainly not the case.* The inhabitants, generally, are as intelligent as the people of any other country. Those born on the island are remarkably apt to learn, and singularly quick of apprehension; and there are very few of the young people who cannot read and write.

There is at Charlotte Town a very respectable grammar-school, a school on the Madras system, and schools in most of the settlements for elementary instruction. The Legislative Assembly vote money for the partial support of these schools.

The constitution of the island is nearly a transcript of that of Nova Scotia †, and, in all civil matters, independent of any jurisdiction in America. The government and legislature are vested in a lieutenant governor, who represents the King; a council, which acts in an executive as well as legislative capacity; and a House of Assembly, of eighteen representatives elected by the people, and who conduct their proceedings according to the forms of the British House of Commons. The governor is chancellor of the Court of Chancery; the chief-justice and attorney-general are appointed by the King; and the high sheriff is appointed annually by the local government. The practice of

* The inhabitants of this colony were lately disturbed in many places by a young female, who, giving out that she was inspired from above, left her service to expound the Bible. She preached, or rather raved, loud, long, and passionate harangues. I do not know what were her particular tenets. She called herself a Brienite; and my knowledge of sectarianism does not extend to an acquaintance with any apostate, or religion-founder, of the name of Brien. His disciple called herself Martha Jago.

† See page 312., book iv.

the Court of Chancery is the same as in England ; but the power given it has been most wantonly exercised. The Supreme Court of Judicature is that in which all criminal and civil matters of consequence are tried, by a jury of twelve men ; and the practice of which is regulated by that of the Court of King's Bench. Matters of small debt are decided by special magistrates ; and justices of the peace take cognisance, as in England, of all breaches of the peace.

As to the prospects which this colony may present to persons in the United Kingdom who are desirous to emigrate, they will, I hope, appear pointed out free from bias in the foregoing pages ; to which I will only add, that the lands, as already stated, having originally been granted away in large tracts, not more than 20,000 acres, if so much, are at present held by the crown. Woodlands, in convenient situations, may, however, be purchased for from 10s. to 2*l.* per acre ; and leases, in perpetuity, or, what amounts to the same thing, for 999 years, can be obtained for the annual rent of from 1s. to 3s. per acre, and in some situations for less. So that, taking into consideration the advantages of residing in the vicinity of well-disposed society, the opportunity that is afforded of having children instructed in the rudiments of education ; of roads communicating between all the settlements ; of corn-mills and saw-mills being almost every where in the neighbourhood ; and having the convenience and benefit, by living near the shipping ports, of ready markets for the produce of the land or sea, it may be reasonably concluded, that the terms on which lands are now to be had in this island are much more favourable than those on which they can be had in the United States.

The value of land, however, cannot long remain so low, as it must rise along with the natural increase of the population. The prices of live stock and other articles vary from the lowest to the highest of the following prices : — A good horse, for saddle or harness, 20*l.* to 35*l.* A serviceable horse, for farmer's work, and of the Canadian breed, 10*l.* to 18*l.* A yoke of oxen, 10*l.* to 20*l.*, according to the size. A cow, 4*l.* to 7*l.* A calf, 12*s.* to 18*s.* A wedder sheep, 10*s.* to 15*s.* A ewe and lamb in the spring, 15*s.* to 18*s.* The price of pigs depends on size and breed. Turkeys, 2*s.* to 3*s.* Stubble geese, 1*s.* 6*d.* to 3*s.* Ducks, 9*d.* to 1*s.* 3*d.* Fowls, 6*d.* to 10*d.* Fresh beef, 2*d.* to 4½*d.*; sometimes in spring, for about a week or two, as high as 6*d.* Pork, 2½*d.* to 5*d.* Mutton, 2*d.* to 5*d.* Veal, 2*d.* to 5*d.* Butter, 8*d.* to 1*s.* Cheese, 6*d.* to 10*d.* Partridges, 4*d.* to 6*d.* Hares, in abundance, 6*d.* Codfish, fresh, weighing from 12*lbs.* to 20*lbs.*, 6*d.* each. Salmon, 2*s.* to 2*s.* 6*d.* each. Herrings, fresh, 3*d.* to 8*d.* per dozen. Lobsters, very fine, ½*d.* to 1*d.* each; other kinds of fish in proportion. Ham, 12*s.* to 25*s.* per cwt. Wheat, 4*s.* to 6*s.* per bushel. Oats, 1*s.* 3*d.* to 2*s.* Barley, 2*s.* to 3*s.* Potatoes, 10*d.* to 1*s.* 3*d.* Turnips, 1*s.* to 1*s.* 3*d.* Carrots, cabbages, and other vegetables, are usually very low. Rum, 3*s.* 6*d.* to 5*s.* per gallon. Port wine, 8*s.* to 12*s.* Madeira, 10*s.* to 15*s.* Brandy, 7*s.* to 9*s.* Hollands, 6*s.* to 8*s.*, all duty paid. Good souchong tea, 4*s.* to 6*s.* Good hyson, 5*s.* to 7*s.* Sugar, 6*d.* to 8*d.* per lb. These prices are in Halifax currency, nominally more, but always one tenth, and sometimes one sixth, less in value than British sterling.

CHAP. VI.

SKETCH OF ITS HISTORY.—CONDITION UNDER THE GOVERNMENT OF FRANCE.—SETTLEMENT BY THE BRITISH.—ERECTED INTO A DISTINCT COLONIAL GOVERNMENT.—GOVERNORS PATTERSON, FANNING, DESBARRES, SMITH, COLONEL READY.

THE first land Cabot met with, after leaving Newfoundland, appears to have been this island, which he discovered on the 24th June, 1497 (St. John's day), and called it St. John's Island. On the right of this discovery, the English neglected to make any claim; and the French, after the settlement of Canada, took possession of it, as within the limits of New France, and as having been discovered, in 1523, by Verazani. It appears to have been granted, in 1663, by the company of New France, together with the Magdalen, Bird, and Brion isles, to the Sieur Doublet, a captain in the French navy, to be held by him in vassalage of the Company of Miscou.

The Sieur's associates were two companies of fishing adventurers, from the towns of Grenville and St. Maloes, who never made any permanent settlement on the island, except trifling fishing-posts at two or three places.

After the peace of Utrecht, many of the French, who lived in Acadia, came and settled on the island; and others flocked to it from Cape Breton, on finding they could have the advantage of a fertile soil, as well as the benefit of a plentiful fishery; but so great

was the apprehension of the French government that these great natural advantages would drain off the fishermen settled at the important harbour of Louisburg, that the inhabitants were prohibited from fishing, except at two or three harbours. Afterwards, the French garrison at Louisburg received from this island grain, vegetables, and cattle; and two commissaries were stationed at different places for collecting and shipping the same.

From the observations of a French officer, who visited this island in 1752, we may have some idea of its condition before it was taken by the British forces. He says, "St. John's is the largest of all the islands in the Gulf of St. Lawrence, and has the advantage of Cape Breton in point of fertility. It has safe harbours, plenty of wood, and as great a convenience for fishing as any place on the coast. It had been altogether neglected, as well as Cape Breton, until necessity, having shown the French the utility of the latter, their eyes were also opened in regard to the former. They have since been at pains to plant it, though not enough, considering its advantageous situation.

"Though the island of St. John is subject to no particular commandant, he receives his orders from the governor of Cape Breton, and administers justice conjunctly with the sub-delegate of the intendant of New France. They reside at Port la Joye" (now Charlotte Town), "and the governor of Louisburg furnishes them with a garrison of sixty men.

"It was from this place we set out in the beginning of the month of August, 1752. We ascended the river to the north-east seven leagues, up to its very source, from whence we proceeded to the har-

bour of St. Peter's, after having made a carriage of four leagues across a plain, well cultivated, and abounding in all sorts of grain." After remaining some days at St. Peter's, he visited the harbours of Fortune, De la Souris, and Matieu; "the neighbouring lands of which," he continues, "are exceeding good and proper for culture. We found several sorts of trees, with a prodigious number of foxes, martens, hares, partridges, &c. The rivers abound in fish, and are bordered with pasture lands, which produce exceeding good grass. The inhabitants came over here from Acadia, during the last war, and are about eight and forty in number. After coasting along, we doubled the east point, which we found deserted, because a fire had obliged the inhabitants to abandon it, in order to go and settle two leagues farther upon the north side.

"We continued our course six leagues, until we arrived at the Pool de Naufrage. The coast, though very level, presents the eye with nothing but a country laid waste by fire; and farther on it is covered with woods. We met with but one inhabitant, who told us the lands about the pool were exceeding good and easy to cultivate, and that every thing grows there in great plenty. Of this he gave us a demonstration that afforded us a singular pleasure; this was a small quantity of wheat he had sown that year, and indeed nothing could be more beautiful than the ears, which were longer and fuller than any I had seen in Europe.

"This place took the name of Pool de Naufrage, from a French ship that had been cast away on the coast. The vessel was lost four leagues out at sea; but a few passengers saved themselves upon the wreck, and were the first that settled at the harbour of St. Peter's. The coast swarms with all sorts of

game, and with a variety of the very best fish." This writer, after briefly describing places at that time settled, namely, Port la Joye, Point Prime, St. Peter's, Savage Harbour, Fortune, Souris, Matieu, Trois Rivières, Tracadie, Racico (Rustico), Malpec (Richmond Bay), Cascampec, Bedec, Rivières aux Blonds (Tryon), Rivières des Crapauds, and Des Sables, farther observes, "The plantation of this island is of great consequence, as well in regard to the fishery, as to the commerce which the inhabitants may carry on in the interior parts; but, to render it more solid and durable, they should attend to the more essential parts, namely, to agriculture, and pasturage, for the breeding and maintaining of all sorts of cattle, and especially sheep: by keeping them together in folds, the upper lands might be improved, and the meadows and corn-fields laid out; from whence the inhabitants would reap a plentiful harvest of all kinds of grain. For if they had but the proper means of making these improvements, their own lands would abundantly supply all their wants, and they would be beholden to foreigners for nothing but salt, lines, hooks, and other fishing-tackle.

"Here they have likewise a vast quantity of plaice, thornbacks, mackerel, and herrings. In several pools and lakes along the downs, they have excellent trout, and such a prodigious quantity of eels, that three men might fill three hogsheads of them in four-and-twenty hours. Lastly, you meet in all parts of the island with great plenty of game. It is therefore surprising that so plentiful a country should have so long been overlooked by the French." *

* Genuine Letters and Memoirs relating to the Natural, Civil, and Commercial History of the Islands of Cape Breton and St. John's,

From the foregoing extracts, it is probable that the French government would not have allowed the natural resources of this island to have remained dormant, if they had retained its sovereignty.

In 1758, this island surrendered to Great Britain, when its population is stated to have been 10,000 ; but an old Acadian, who is still living, and was then on the island, told me that he recollected well the number of families in all the settlements, and that the population could not have exceeded 6000. It was stocked with above 10,000 head of black cattle, and some of the farmers raised 1200 bushels of corn each for the Quebec market.* Lieutenant-Colonel Rollo was sent from Louisburg, by General Amherst, to take possession of the island ; and, to the eternal disgrace of the French governor, a vast number of English scalps were found hung up in his house. The island, for many years preceding, was the principal resort of the Micmac Indians ; and, from the immense quantity of oyster shells on the banks of rivers and bays in the neighbourhood of oyster beds, where the savages generally pitched their wigwams or tents, we may conclude that it was their rendezvous for many centuries. In several places, these shells, which are partly in a pulverised state, cover several acres to the depth of from one to five or six feet.

The old Acadian French, driven from Nova Scotia, assimilated themselves at that time in a great

from the first settlement there, to the taking of Louisburg by the English in 1758. By an impartial Frenchman. London translation, 1761.

* Smollett's History of England.

measure to the habits of the Indians. Some of these Acadians were sent to Canada, others to the southern colonies.

At the peace of 1763, this colony and Cape Breton were annexed to the government of Nova Scotia. In 1764, a general survey of the British empire in America was begun by order of government, and that of this island completed in 1776.

Some difference having arisen as to the plan of settling it, Lord Egremont, then First Lord of the Admiralty, proposed doing so on a feudal plan, according to which, his Lordship was to be lord paramount of the colony, which was to be divided into twelve baronies, to be held of him. Each baron was to erect a castle, to maintain a certain number of men, who, with under-tenants, were to perform suit and service. This idle scheme was very properly rejected; and, the lands of the colony being considered too valuable to be granted away indiscriminately to individuals, like the rest of the newly-acquired territories in America, the island was divided into sixty-seven townships, of about 20,000 acres each, which were granted, by recommendation of the Board of Trade and Plantations, to certain persons who were considered to have claims on the government.

By the terms of the first grant, a quit-rent was reserved to his Majesty of six shillings per hundred acres on some, of four shillings on others, and of two shillings per hundred acres on the remaining townships, payable on the Feast of St. Michael. A reservation was made at the same time of all such parts to his Majesty as had then been set apart, or should thereafter be set apart, for erecting fortifications,

building wharfs, enclosing naval yards, or laying out highways for the convenience of communication from one part of the island to another ; and of all mines of gold, silver, and coals. Also a reservation on each township for church and school lands, and for a fishing on the sea-coast, within the distance of 500 feet from high-water mark.

The grantees of each township were to settle the same within ten years from the date of their grants, in the proportion of one person to every 200 acres, one third of which, in this proportion, was to be settled in four years, with Protestants from the continent of Europe, or who had resided for two years in America, antecedent to the date of the respective grant of each township.*

Thus was the whole of this valuable colony, except the above small reservations, and three others for intended county towns, given away in one day ; and its prosperity checked, in consequence, for the last seventy years. Great expectations were formed on this plan for its settlement, from the flattering report drawn up by Captain Holland, surveyor-general of North America. But many of the proprietors, from necessity or other motives, sold their lands to persons who were either unable or unwilling to settle them on the original plan ; and the colony falling in this manner into the hands of a few individuals, who have, with the exception of the late Earl of Selkirk, Messrs. Cambridge, and Mr. Hill, and the late

* At that period, an idea was seriously entertained, that these kingdoms would be depopulated by emigration to America ; and the conditions stipulated in the large grants of lands made to various individuals, of settling them with foreigners, were occasioned by this opinion. This idle idea soon vanished.

Captain Macdonald, expended scarcely any thing towards settling or improving the country, has been the great cause of its not having been long ago populously settled. It was not until lands in convenient situations in the neighbouring colonies were located, that the lands of this island were considered worth the value set on them by the proprietors; and the very prejudice against settling on lands unless held in free soccage from the crown, has had a powerful influence in directing emigrants to other places.

In 1768, a majority of the proprietors presented a petition to his Majesty, praying that the island might be erected into a separate government from that of Nova Scotia. This was granted, and Walter Patterson, Esq. appointed governor; who, with the other officers of government, arrived on the island in 1770, at which time there were not living on it more than 150 families, and only five resident proprietors. Shortly after his arrival, Governor Patterson planted a number of Acadian French along the front of lot 17 (St. Eleanor's); and the proprietors of lot 18 (fronting on Richmond Bay) brought several families from Argyleshire, who were settled on this township in 1770 and 1772. The settlement of New London, Rustico, and Elliot River, began in 1773; and Cove Head, and lot 59 at Three Rivers, were settled early by the late Chief Baron Montgomery.

Tracaday was planted with about 300 Highlanders by the late Captain Macdonald; and a few other places were partially settled about the same period.

The first House of Assembly met in 1773. The remainder of Governor Patterson's administration, which ended in 1789, was filled up with angry dif-

ferences between himself and the proprietors ; and he resorted to measures, on the ground of realising crown or quit-rents, that were considered ill-judged and improper. In other respects he was kind and benevolent. This unfortunate man died afterwards in the Fleet Prison, where he was confined for debt.

During the American revolutionary war, several of the enemy's armed vessels were captured and carried to Charlotte Town ; and the frigates that brought out the Quebec convoys generally spent part of the summer on this station. Barracks were at the same time erected, to accommodate four provincial companies sent from New York. The late General Fanning succeeded Governor Patterson ; and, although his administration was productive of no advantage in promoting the prosperity of the colony, it was not apparently injurious to private individuals. His ruling passion, during his administration, was that of acquiring landed property in the colony, and he succeeded in securing to himself some of the best tracts, without proceeding to any violent measures against the proprietors ; but he was considered the most severe landlord in the colony, in respect to rents and terms, which, with the common objections of new settlers to become tenants in wilderness lands, retarded the improvement and settlement of the island. He was born and brought up in the United States ; and he owed his fortune to accidental circumstances, the advantages of which he had the finesse to seize. Soon after his appointment to this government, two provincial corps were raised, by order of his Majesty, for the protection of the island ; and the barracks, as they now (1829) stand, were rebuilt, by order of the Duke of Kent. Three troops

of volunteer cavalry were also formed ; and the name of the island changed, in 1799, from St. John's, and called by an act of the colonial legislature, Prince Edward, in honour of his Royal Highness the Duke of Kent, then commanding the army in America.

Governor Desbarres, who had previously been Lieutenant-Governor of Cape Breton, and who succeeded General Fanning, was a man of considerable talent, liberal education, and well known as an able hydrographer. He possessed also many kind and generous qualities ; but, from being very old (having been a captain of foot at the siege of Quebec), designing men acquired an influence over him, which led him to do a number of foolish things, and some unjust ones. The settlement of the country, and its general improvement during his administration, were more rapid than for some years after.

He was succeeded, in 1813, by Charles Douglas Smith, Esq., a brother of Sir Sidney Smith. The period at which he entered on the administration was as propitious as he could wish, the country being in a condition to enable him to direct all its resources to the general benefit of the colony. Had he taken any interest in the welfare of the country committed to his care, he might have still governed it with credit to himself and satisfaction to the people, instead of making his administration obnoxious to almost every individual in the colony. For three years previous to his removal, the colonial legislature was not suffered to assemble ; and the proceedings instituted in 1823 (which will ever be recollected as a period of calamity in the history of the colony) occasioned a simultaneous feeling in the public mind, which made the inhabitants persevere in the proper constitutional

way to effect his dismissal from office. A requisition for convening county meetings was made to the High Sheriff*, by the principal people on the island. These meetings were held, and conducted with great propriety, decorum, and unfeigned feelings of loyalty. Resolutions, embodying charges against the Governor, were unanimously agreed to, and a committee appointed by each of the county meetings to prepare a

* The High Sheriff of the colony is appointed, as in the counties of England, annually, and invested, by virtue of his commission and office, with precisely the same powers and duties. I had the honour to hold the appointment this year (1823); and on receiving a requisition, signed by the principal persons in the colony, to convene county meetings, for the purpose of petitioning his Majesty for the redress of grievances, I considered it my bounden duty, under existing circumstances, to afford the inhabitants the constitutional privilege of doing so, and gave public notice of the same. On this, his excellency the Governor immediately held a council, the majority of the members of which, being appointed by himself, concurred with him in forbidding me to sanction the county meetings, of which I received official notice. I felt, however, clearly convinced that I could not, in conformity to the oath I had taken on entering upon the duties of my office, but allow his Majesty's subjects the privilege of petition. As a dernier ressort, the Governor then attempted to supersede me the day before the meeting of the Supreme Court of Judicature, directing my deputy, who had given no sureties, to take upon him the duty of "acting sheriff," and whose first act was to erase from the grand jury list, which I had only an hour before returned into the Crown Office, the names of John Stewart, Esq. and another gentleman, then in court, as jurors, in obedience to my summons. As this interfered with trial by jury, on the Attorney-General rising, and, in his forcibly impressive manner, expressing his positive disapprobation of what had been done, and the alarming state of justice under such circumstances, the Chief Justice was lost in his usual absence of energy, the court was thrown into confusion, and no legal business of any importance ventured upon in the colony, until the Governor and Chief Justice were dismissed from their offices.

petition to his Majesty for the removal of the Governor and Chief Justice. These petitions were grounded on the charges contained in the resolutions of the county meeting, and were signed by almost every landholder and householder in the colony. John Stewart, Esq., one of the committee, was appointed agent for the island, to carry home the petitions. Previously, however, to his leaving, the Governor thought fit, as if to crush the whole proceedings by a *coup de main*, to issue attachments out of the Court of Chancery, against Mr. Stewart, and the other gentlemen who formed the committee, under pretence of their being guilty of contempt of that court, by stating the grievous truth, that the Governor had sanctioned illegal fees in that court, since his appointing his son-in-law, a lieutenant on the half-pay of the 98th regiment, to the offices of master and registrar. Mr. Stewart, however, escaped over to Nova Scotia, with the petitions, and the necessary evidence to support the charges they contained; and came to England, in the month of December. Soon after his arrival in London, the Governor and Chief Justice were removed from their offices. The Governor, meantime, arrested the other gentlemen of the committee, and had them brought up before himself as chancellor, and ordered them into the custody of the sergeant-at-arms. But, from the great assemblage of people at Charlotte Town on that day, and dreading that the inhabitants would become desperate if their representatives were confined in the cells prepared for them in the common prison, he did not venture to commit them. He, at the same time, suspended the Attorney-General, Mr. Johnston, merely for having the hardihood to express in court,

when the members of the committee, who were brought to the bar, had been ordered into custody without being heard, that it was novel to his experience in equity, to commit gentlemen who had the misfortune to be brought to the bar of a court on an implied charge, without being allowed the privilege of defending themselves.

After this, Governor Smith remained within the barrack gates, apparently inactive as respected the local affairs of the colony, until he left the colony on the arrival of his successor, Colonel Ready.

The Attorney-General was soon after reinstated in office. Writs for a new election of members for the Representative Assembly were issued; and Mr. Stewart, who returned to the colony in the same ship with the Governor, was chosen speaker of the House of Assembly; during the first session of which, twenty-three acts of great importance to the country were passed, and added to the code of colonial laws.

Governor Ready on the following year visited England, but returned soon after to the island, the improvement and prosperity of which appeared, to him, paramount to every other consideration. The roads, all over the island, have been widened, and rendered fit for carriages. New bridges have been erected, and the old ones repaired. The legislature have appropriated money for aiding the support of schools in Charlotte Town, and the county settlements. Agriculture, and the breeding of cattle, are encouraged; and what has been effected in so short a period, proves how much might have formerly been done, without any expense but the proper application of the colonial revenue.

Governor Ready, in order to teach by the force of example, became himself a farmer. When in England, he sent a beautiful full-bred stallion and mare to the island; an agricultural society was established under his auspices; and the cultivation of the soil, fostered by his government, extended rapidly over all parts of the colony.

Much regret was expressed on his removal from the island. He has since been appointed to the government of the Isle of Man. Of his successor, Colonel Young, I know nothing; but, from the despatches lately sent me from the colony, he appears to administer the government satisfactorily.

The island has been at last so far prosperous, and much will hereafter depend on the inhabitants themselves. Let not their energies and industry be divided by petty bickering in private society, by family quarrels, by jealous feelings, or by political squabbles. Much has been done for them, but they must still do much more for themselves. They possess one of the most beautiful spots of the habitable globe; and their happiness may be secured by industry, economy, unanimity, punctuality to engagements, and an aversion to litigation.

NOTE TO BOOK V.

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PIC-NIC excursions are much in vogue all over America. To show how far these differ from any thing to which they may be compared in England, it may be sufficient to observe, that pic-nic parties generally consist of families of respectability, with their friends, who are on a perfectly intimate footing with each other. In summer, some romantic spot is fixed upon, to which the party proceed ; if by water, which is most commonly the case, in an open boat ; or if by land, in gigs, or in calashes, and on horseback. The ladies consider it as within their particular province to furnish the eatables. The gentlemen provide wines and spirits. At these parties, there is usually less restraint, and more enjoyment, than at the assemblies. On some grassy glade, shaded by the luxuriant branches of forest trees, and not far from a clear spring or rivulet, the contents of well-filled baskets are disclosed, feasting on which forms certainly the most substantial part of their day's enjoyment ; but perhaps the most agreeable is that which succeeds, when the party divides for the pleasure of walking ; and there are undoubtedly worse occupations in the world, than wandering with a pretty woman through the skirts of a wood, or along the margin of the sea, enjoying " sweet converse," and the delights of the open air and surrounding scenery. As the evening approaches, they reassemble, and the party, followed by their servants, bringing along the fragments of the picnic, return to the boat, in which they embark.

The evenings at this season are usually clear, agreeably warm, and tranquil ; the sea calm and unruffled ; and as neither the wine nor the wreck of the fowls, hams, &c., are forgotten, a repetition of the pic-nic may be said to take place on the water.

It sometimes happens, that, in returning from these parties, the tide has ebbed so far that the boat cannot approach within a hundred yards of the shore ; but, as it would be extremely ungallant to allow the ladies to remain any time without landing, the gentlemen,

let their rank in society be what it may (if even members of his Majesty's Colonial Council, Judges of the Supreme Court, or the principal officers of his Majesty's customs,) all get into the water; and although often sinking at every step more than a foot in the mud, each carries a lady in his arms to dry *terra firma*.

The rendezvous for winter pic-nics is usually a respectable farmhouse, some miles distant in the country. No small part of the pleasure of these excursions is enjoyed in driving to the appointed place with a lady, in a well-furred and cushioned carriage, drawn over the snow or ice by one or two horses. These carriages take but two persons; the gentleman drives, as there is no seat in front for a servant. If the ice be smooth and glibby, and if the wind blows across the carriage, it is frequently turned round, bringing the horse up at the same time with it, although generally going at great speed. These carriages, in turning corners, or passing over uneven roads, frequently overturn, leaving the passengers behind on the snow, but scarcely ever injured, although annoyed by the laugh which their awkward situation irresistibly excites in the by-standers.

As servants are seldom brought to attend at these winter parties, the gentlemen, as soon as they hand their fair companions out of the carriages, and usher them into the house, leave them for a short time to see their horses properly taken care of. By the time they return, the ladies have disencumbered themselves of muffs, cloaks, and pelisses; and the bracing temperature of the season having by this time produced a corresponding sharpness of appetite, the pic-nic, to which they now all sit down, is enjoyed with all possible zest and good humour. Soon after, a country dance is announced; the music strikes up, and the party, "tripping it on the light fantastic toe," seldom breaks up before daylight the following morning. The night is thus, with eating, drinking, and dancing, spent in high delight; and when the hour of departure draws nigh, the ladies retire to wrap themselves up in their winter habiliments, while the gentlemen have their cabriolets brought to the door; and then each drives home with the lady who honoured him with her company.

END OF THE FIRST VOLUME.

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